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**PADRÕES GLOBAIS E PREDITORES DA DIVERSIDADE BETA  
TAXONÔMICA E FUNCIONAL EM ASSEMBLEIAS DE PEIXES  
RECIFAIS**

Santa Maria, RS

2020

**Melina Forgiarini Maxwell**

**PADRÕES GLOBAIS E PREDITORES DA DIVERSIDADE BETA TAXONÔMICA E  
FUNCIONAL EM ASSEMBLEIAS DE PEIXES RECIFAIS**

Dissertação apresentada ao Curso de Pós-Graduação em Biodiversidade Animal, da Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (UFSM, RS), como requisito parcial para obtenção do título de **Mestre em Ciências Biológicas – Área Biodiversidade Animal**.

Orientadora: Prof<sup>a</sup>. Dra. Mariana Bender Gomes

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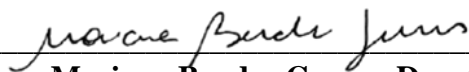
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(Presidente/Orientadora)



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## RESUMO

### PADRÕES GLOBAIS E PREDITORES DA DIVERSIDADE BETA TAXONÔMICA E FUNCIONAL EM ASSEMBLEIAS DE PEIXES RECIFAIS

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Um dos principais focos dos estudos macroecológicos é entender a variação espacial da diversidade de espécies e, além disso, avaliar quais são os preditores que a moldam ao longo dos ecossistemas terrestres, dulcícolas e marinhos. A diversidade pode ser mensurada tanto pelo seu valor taxonômico, quanto pelo seu valor funcional. Essa diversidade pode ser particionada em diversidades alfa, beta e gama. A diversidade beta corresponde a diferença na composição de espécies ou atributos funcionais entre pares de comunidades e pode ser dividida em *turnover* ou *nestedness* (aninhamento). O *turnover* corresponde à substituição de espécies/atributos funcionais entre áreas, sendo este padrão relacionado a dispersão de espécies. A biodiversidade marinha também pode ser mensurada através das variações nas espécies e funções que desempenham. Um dos principais centros de diversidade marinha são os ambientes recifais, onde encontram-se os peixes recifais. Os peixes recifais correspondem a mais de 6.000 espécies com ampla distribuição ao longo dos oceanos onde desempenham inúmeras funções essenciais para a manutenção do ecossistema recifal. Os valores de dissimilaridade entre comunidades de peixes recifais tropicais vem sendo utilizados para delimitar regiões biogeográficas e, também, avaliar diferenças (i.e., diversidade beta) nas composições taxonômica, funcional e filogenética. Todavia, ainda não foram conduzidos estudos que avaliam as diferenças na composição de espécies e funções em ampla escala. Dessa forma, os objetivos principais desta dissertação são: (i) avaliar os padrões de diversidade beta taxonômica e funcional de assembleias de peixes recifais em escala global; (ii) investigar a congruência entre diversidade beta taxonômica e funcional entre pares de assembleias de peixes recifais; e (iii) determinar a importância relativa dos preditores ambientais nos padrões de diversidade beta taxonômica e funcional. Além disso, é essencial saber se as mesmas variáveis preditoras influenciam os padrões de diversidade beta taxonômica e funcional em diferentes *realms* marinhos e regiões biogeográficas.

**Palavras-chave:** Recifes tropicais. Diversidade Beta. *Turnover*. Regiões biogeográficas. *Realms* marinhos.

## ABSTRACT

### GLOBAL PATTERNS AND DRIVERS OF TAXONOMIC AND FUNCTIONAL BETA DIVERSITY IN REEF FISH ASSEMBLAGES

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One of the main focuses of macroecological studies is to understand the spatial variation and, in addition, to evaluate which are the predictors that shape this variation among terrestrial, freshwater and marine ecosystems. Diversity can be measured by its taxonomic and functional value. Also, this diversity can be partitioned into alpha, beta and gamma. Beta diversity corresponds to the difference of species composition or functional traits between pairs of communities and can be divided in turnover and nestedness components. Turnover is the substitution of species/functional traits between areas, being associated with species dispersal. Marine biodiversity can also be measured through variations of species and functions, that they perform. Reef areas are one of the main marine biodiversity centers in the world and have a high diversity of marine organisms, among them the reef fish. Reef fish corresponds to more than 6.000 species with a wide distribution throughout the oceans and it performs essential functions for the maintenance of reef ecosystems. The dissimilarity values between communities of tropical reef fish have been used to delimit biogeographic regions and to evaluate differences (i.e., beta diversity) in taxonomic, functional and phylogenetic compositions. Moreover, there are studies relating beta-diversity patterns to environmental variables at local and regional scales. Thus, the main aims of this dissertation are: (i) to investigate taxonomic and functional beta diversity patterns of reef fish assemblages on a global scale; (ii) to evaluate the congruence between taxonomic and functional and taxonomic beta diversity between pairs of reef fish assemblages; and (iii) to determine the relative importance of environmental predictors in patterns of taxonomic and functional beta diversity. Moreover, it is essential to know if the same predictor variables shape beta taxonomic and functional diversity in different realms and biogeographic regions.

**Keywords:** Tropical reefs. Beta diversity. Turnover. Biogeographic regions. Marine realms.

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## INTRODUÇÃO GERAL

Entender a variação espacial na diversidade de espécies e suas forças estruturantes têm sido um dos principais focos em estudos ecológicos e biogeográficos. Estima-se que existam mais de 8.7 milhões de espécies distribuídas ao longo do globo, sendo destas 2.2 milhões exclusivas do ambiente marinho (MORA et al., 2011). Essa diversidade de espécies pode ser traduzida em riqueza de espécies e uniformidade (SIMPSON, 1949). A riqueza de espécies corresponde ao número de espécies observada em determinada área (MAGURRAN, 2013). A partir da riqueza de espécies, WHITTAKER (1960) propôs a divisão da diversidade em três componentes: alfa ( $\alpha$ ), beta ( $\beta$ ) e gama ( $\gamma$ ). A diversidade alfa corresponde à riqueza de espécies em uma escala local; a diversidade gama é definida pelo número total de espécies observadas num conjunto regional de locais estudados; e, por fim, a diversidade beta corresponde às alterações na composição de espécies entre dois ou mais locais em uma determinada região (BASELGA, 2010; MAGURRAN, 2013).

Diversas hipóteses buscam explicar quais são os processos responsáveis pelos padrões de diversidade observados na natureza, especialmente aqueles relacionados com as mudanças na composição de espécies (BOWEN et al., 2013; BROWN, 2014). Essas hipóteses envolvem desde processos histórico-evolutivos, que atuam em amplas escalas, até fatores ambientais. Um dos principais padrões observados na estruturação das comunidades, tanto no ambiente terrestre quanto marinho, é o gradiente latitudinal de diversidade. Em suma, esse gradiente prediz um aumento no número de espécies em latitudes menores (i.e., região tropical) e uma diminuição da diversidade em direção a maiores latitudes (WILLIG, KAUFMAN & STEVENS, 2003). O gradiente latitudinal de diversidade é observado em diversos grupos taxonômicos, como mamíferos (KAUFMAN, 1995), aves (BLACKBURN & GASTON, 1996), peixes marinhos (STEVENS, 1996), moluscos (CRAME, 2000), corais (HARRIOT & BANKS, 2002) e plantas (QIAN, 1998). Além da diversidade alfa, o gradiente latitudinal de diversidade tem sido explorado recentemente em um contexto de variação na composição de espécies (i.e., diversidade beta), como registrado em mamíferos (QIAN, BADGLEY & FOX, 2009), plantas vasculares (QIAN & RICKLEFS, 2007), anfíbios (BASELGA, GÓMEZ-RODRÍGUEZ & LOBO, 2012) e invertebrados (BASELGA, 2010).

A diversidade beta corresponde ao grau em que duas ou mais comunidades são dissimilares entre si em relação a composição de espécies e essa característica faz dela uma das principais abordagens utilizadas em estudos ecológicos. Essa métrica de diversidade pode

refletir em dois fenômenos distintos, resultantes de processos antagônicos (BASELGA, 2010). BASELGA (2010) particionou a diversidade beta em dois componentes distintos: o *turnover* (substituição) e o *nestedness* (aninhamento). O *turnover* corresponde à substituição de espécies entre áreas, enquanto o *nestedness* ocorre em locais que apresentam um menor número de espécies e são subconjuntos de comunidades taxonomicamente mais ricas (BASELGA, 2010). A limitação de nicho e dispersão de espécies encontram-se relacionadas aos padrões de *turnover* (GASTON, EVANS & LENNON, 2007). Já o componente *nestedness* reflete um processo de perda de espécies, como consequência da extinção seletiva e da colonização de novas espécies (COOK & QUINN, 1995). Portanto, a diferenciação entre os dois componentes da diversidade beta é importante para auxiliar no entendimento de questões biogeográficas, ecológicas e de conservação (BASELGA, 2010).

Os padrões de diversidade beta também podem ser investigados através de uma abordagem funcional. Sob a abordagem beta funcional são mensuradas as variações nos atributos funcionais de espécies entre comunidades (RICOTTA & BURRASCANO, 2008). Os atributos funcionais são características morfológicas, fisiológicas ou fenológicas que influenciam diretamente a performance dos organismos (VIOLLE et al., 2007; MOUILLOT et al., 2013). Estes atributos podem ser utilizados para reunir espécies em entidades ou grupos funcionais (e.g. herbívoros de tamanho médio). Espécies que compõem um grupo funcional têm papéis semelhantes nas comunidades e respondem de forma similar a diferentes variáveis ambientais (LAVOREL et al., 1997). Dessa forma, os grupos funcionais estão relacionados aos processos ecossistêmicos e, também, à resposta de espécies às alterações ambientais (NYSTRÖM, FOLKE & MOBERG, 2000; LUCK, CARTER & SMALLBONE, 2013). Portanto, a abordagem funcional permite compreender a relação entre biodiversidade e funções ecossistêmicas, oferecendo informações complementares à riqueza e diversidade taxonômica (CADOTTE, CARSCADDEN & MIROTCHNICK, 2011; LAURETO, CIANCIARUSO & SAMIA, 2015).

A biodiversidade marinha pode ser avaliada através da variação das espécies e, também, das funções realizadas no ecossistema marinho. Para vertebrados e invertebrados marinhos são observados distintos padrões de diversidade: as espécies costeiras apresentam máxima diversidade no Pacífico Ocidental, enquanto as espécies oceânicas mostraram picos de diversidade em latitudes de 30° norte e sul (TITTENSOR et al., 2010). Um dos principais centros de biodiversidade no ambiente marinho são as áreas recifais (SALA & KNOWLTON, 2006). Os recifes de corais são comparados a florestas tropicais, devido a sua alta diversidade

de espécies e complexidade estrutural (CONNEL, 1978; REAKA-KUDLA, 1997). Nos ecossistemas recifais, dentre os grupos altamente diversos, encontram-se os peixes recifais. Os peixes recifais correspondem a mais de 6,000 espécies distribuídas ao longo dos oceanos Atlântico, Pacífico e Índico (KULBICKI et al., 2013). Além da elevada diversidade taxonômica e ampla distribuição, os peixes recifais desempenham inúmeras funções afetando diretamente a dinâmica dos ambientes recifais (e.g., movimento de energia/matéria) (BELLWOOD & WAINWRIGHT, 2002). Entretanto, algumas funções ecossistêmicas essenciais são desempenhas por poucas espécies de peixes recifais (HUGHES et al., 2017), mostrando que recifes de corais são vulneráveis a perda de espécies funcionalmente importantes (MOUILLOT et al., 2014). Dessa forma, a elevada riqueza de espécies e ampla distribuição de peixes recifais, além da variedade de funções ecossistêmicas desempenhadas pelos mesmos, tornam os peixes recifais um modelo ideal para o estudo na variação da diversidade (i.e., diversidade beta) ao longo dos oceanos e suas regiões biogeográficas.

A partir das diferenças taxonômicas observadas entre ambientes recifais, foram delimitados três reinos (*realms*) marinhos e seis regiões biogeográficas (KULBICKI et al., 2013). Os três reinos marinhos foram denominados Atlântico, Pacífico Oriental Tropical e Indo-Pacífico (KULBICKI et al. 2013). Cada reino marinho apresenta sua história ecológica-evolutiva e barreiras biogeográficas que isolam diferentes comunidades de peixes recifais (FLOETER et al., 2008; KULBICKI et al. 2013; BELLWOOD et al. 2015). Além de utilizar as dissimilaridades entre as comunidades de peixes recifais para delinear regiões biogeográficas, estas têm sido utilizadas para avaliar os padrões de diversidade beta taxonômica e filogenética em escalas locais e regionais (ARIAS-GONZÁLEZ et al., 2008; HATTAB et al., 2015; PINHEIRO et al., 2018; CARLOS-JÚNIOR et al., 2019). No mar Mediterrâneo, a diversidade beta taxonômica de peixes costeiros está principalmente relacionada com profundidade e temperatura da superfície do mar (HATTAB et al., 2015). No Caribe, o componente *turnover* (i.e., substituição de espécies) está relacionado principalmente com a área recifal, mas também com profundidade e cobertura de corais (ARIAS-GONZÁLEZ et al., 2008). No Sudoeste Atlântico, PINHEIRO et al. (2018) observou maiores valores de diversidade beta taxonômica entre o Uruguai e o sul do Brasil, além de dois estados no nordeste brasileiro e, por fim, em ilhas oceânicas. Os principais preditores da composição de assembleias de peixes recifais na província Brasileira foram uso de habitat, tamanho corpóreo, profundidade e dieta (PINHEIRO et al., 2018). Na Baía de Ilha Grande, no sudeste brasileiro, as variações na composição de espécies de peixes recifais está relacionada com as

diferenças de profundidade, assim como, em padrões de abundância (CARLOS-JÚNIOR et al., 2019). Estes estudos sobre diversidade beta em comunidades de peixes recifais, geralmente, são conduzidos em escalas menores e relacionam os padrões encontrados apenas com variáveis ambientais.

Apesar dos padrões de diversidade alfa e gama, bem como a história evolutiva de peixes recifais terem sido estudados em ampla escala geográfica, as diferenças (i.e., diversidade beta) na composição taxonômica e funcional de assembleias de peixes recifais ainda não foram conduzidas em ampla escala. Além disso, pouco se sabe sobre a influência de variáveis ambientais e geográficas na formação e manutenção dos padrões de diversidade beta funcional e taxonômica em assembleias de peixes recifais em distintos reinos marinhos e regiões biogeográficas. Dessa forma, os principais objetivos deste estudo são: (i) investigar os padrões de diversidade- $\beta$  taxonômica e funcional em escala global, (ii) investigar a congruência entre padrões de diversidade- $\beta$  taxonômica com os padrões de diversidade- $\beta$  funcional entre assembleias de peixes recifais; e, por fim, (iii) identificar os fatores ambientais que contribuíram para moldar as variações na diversidade- $\beta$  taxonômica e funcional em diferentes regiões biogeográficas.

### *Estrutura da dissertação*

Esta dissertação é apresentada em um capítulo único, estruturado em formato de “*Original research*”, conforme as normas da revista *Ecography*.

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# 1 **Global patterns and drivers of taxonomic and functional beta diversity in reef fish**

## 2 **assemblages**

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9

## 10 **Abstract**

11 Beta diversity corresponds to differences in species composition and/or functional traits  
12 between sites. Reef fishes are the most diverse group of marine vertebrates, corresponding to  
13 more than 6.000 species and being widely distributed across the oceans. Also, they develop  
14 several and essential functional roles for the maintenance of reef ecosystems. Here, we  
15 investigated the patterns of taxonomic and functional beta diversity contrasting pairs of reef  
16 fish assemblages in the Atlantic, Tropical Eastern Pacific and Indo-Pacific realms. In the  
17 Atlantic, a clear taxonomic and functional dissimilarity between reef fish faunas from the  
18 Caribbean and the Southwestern Atlantic were structured by coral richness. Fish assemblages  
19 of Tropical Eastern Pacific were shaped by their distance from the biodiversity center in the  
20 Indo-Australian Archipelago, and a functional split between north, south and oceanic islands  
21 possibly reflects thermal gradients along this realm. The Indo-Pacific realm showed highly  
22 homogeneous taxonomic and functional beta diversity values. Distance from the Quaternary  
23 reef refugia had a key role in shaping the beta diversity of this realm. Correlations between  
24 functional and taxonomic beta diversity as well as between its turnover components reveals  
25 that differences in species composition are followed by differences in the functional structure  
26 of fish assemblages.

27

28 **Keywords:** Tropical reefs. Beta diversity. Turnover. Biogeographical boundaries. Isolation.

29

30

31



## 32 1. Introduction

33 Understanding the patterns and processes that shape biodiversity, as well as their  
34 variations throughout space and time, have been in the center of macroecology (Harborne et  
35 al. 2006, Siqueira et al. 2016, Lyons et al. 2019, Pontarp et al. 2019). In an attempt to  
36 unrevealing these patterns, several metrics have been incorporated into studies of biological  
37 communities, such as taxonomic, functional and phylogenetic diversities (Meynard et al.  
38 2011, Strecker et al. 2011, Swenson 2011, Arnan et al. 2017, Teichert et al. 2018).  
39 Differences in the taxonomic, functional and phylogenetic composition are associated with  
40 environmental heterogeneity (Price 2002, Veech and Crist 2007, Arias-González et al. 2008,  
41 Melo et al. 2009, Bozelli et al. 2015, López-Delgado et al. 2015) and spatio-temporal scales  
42 (Carstensen et al. 2014, Fordyce and DeVries 2016, Rocha et al. 2018, Legendre 2019).  
43 Environmental heterogeneity, for instance, promotes the increase of species richness of birds  
44 (Veech and Crist 2007), plants (Dufour et al. 2006), corals and reef fish (Arias-González et al.  
45 2008). While different spatio-temporal scales influence species richness within and between  
46 communities (Willis and Whittaker 2002). Clarke and Lidgard (2001) examined Bryozoan's  
47 assemblages in the North Atlantic and observed that on a local scale there was no variation in  
48 species composition with latitude, however, on a regional scale there was a peak in species  
49 richness among tropical and temperate areas.

50 Species diversity is commonly divided into three levels: alpha, beta and gamma  
51 (Whittaker 1960). Alpha diversity ( $\alpha$ ) consists in the number of species in a unique site or  
52 habitat; gamma diversity ( $\gamma$ ) is measured by the species richness in a region and, finally, the  
53 beta diversity ( $\beta$ ) represents the differences in species composition between two or more  
54 habitats into a region (Mittelbach 2012). Beta diversity interacts with local diversity (i.e., alpha  
55 diversity) and both result from community assembly through local and regional filters  
56 (Soininen et al. 2018). Beta diversity can be partitioned into two components: (i) turnover,  
57 which represents the replacement of species or functions between assemblages; and (ii)  
58 nestedness, where assemblages with lower species richness or functional richness are subsets  
59 of assemblages with higher species richness (Baselga 2010, Villéger et al. 2013). In biological  
60 communities, the turnover component can be related to dispersion processes, while nestedness  
61 can be related to selective colonization and extinction (Si et al. 2016). The assessment of beta  
62 diversity components may support the understanding of biogeographic, ecological and  
63 conservation issues (Baselga 2010).

64 Taxonomic diversity often corresponds to species richness and these species are  
65 functionally different from each other (Villéger et al. 2013). However, an approach focused  
66 only in species identity is limited relative to the understanding of community assembly, as  
67 well as the diversity effects on ecosystem functioning (Villéger et al. 2008, Mouillot et al.  
68 2011). Functional diversity is based on life-history traits of each specie, which are defined as  
69 characteristics that influence growth and survival aspects of organisms (Violle et al. 2007).  
70 Traditionally, under a functional approach, species are grouped by their functional,  
71 morphological and/or physiological traits into functional entities (Wright et al. 2006).  
72 Functional entities provide information about the structure and dynamics of assemblages and  
73 depending on functional redundancy, the addition or loss of species may have impacts on  
74 ecosystem functioning (Halpern and Floeter 2008, Estes et al. 2016, Denis et al. 2017,  
75 Heilpern et al. 2018). Once species interact locally through their attributes, approaches that  
76 include the functional component of communities may be utilized to understand ecosystem  
77 functioning and services (Lavorel et al. 2011, Cadotte 2017, Winfree et al. 2018), functional  
78 diversity patterns (Cadotte et al. 2011, Meynard et al. 2011, Pimiento et al. 2017), and  
79 assemblage's responses to environmental changes (Mayfield et al. 2005, Mouillot et al. 2013).  
80 Thus, both taxonomic and functional diversity have been widely used in studies that assess  
81 the difference in composition between two or more communities (Devictor et al. 2010,  
82 Villéger et al. 2012, Leão-Pires et al. 2018, Carvalho et al. 2019)

83 Studies investigating taxonomic and functional beta-diversity patterns have already  
84 been conducted in terrestrial ecosystems from local to global scale (Qian & Ricklefs 2007,  
85 Melo et al. 2009, Qian 2009, Baselga et al. 2012, Fluck et al. 2020). In the Amazonian forest,  
86 taxonomic and phylogenetic turnover of passerine birds is mainly driven by temperature and  
87 geographic distance (Fluck et al. 2020). At global scale, differences in amphibian diversity are  
88 explained by higher turnover values in the tropical region, whereas higher nestedness values  
89 characterize assemblages at higher latitudes (Baselga et al. 2012). For mammals and birds,  
90 beta diversity patterns have been shown to be related to habitat heterogeneity and current  
91 climatic conditions (Melo et al. 2009). However, studies of taxonomic and functional beta  
92 diversity in marine ecosystems are generally conducted at a local or regional scale (Becking et  
93 al. 2006, Carlos-Júnior et al. 2019). As observed in terrestrial environments, the variation in  
94 species composition and/or functions between locations is frequently associated with the high  
95 heterogeneity found in marine ecosystems for starfishes, corals and reef fishes (Price 2002,

96 Arias-González et al. 2008). Yet there are no global scale assessments of beta diversity  
97 patterns for marine communities using a functional approach.

98 Reef ecosystems harbor remarkable species diversity and ecosystem functions. There  
99 are over 6.000 fish species inhabiting reefs distributed across the world's oceans (Kulbicki et  
100 al. 2013). The marine biodiversity hotspot in the Indo-Australian Archipelago – the Coral  
101 Triangle – hosts more than 2.000 reef fish species (Pellissier et al. 2014). As the distance from  
102 the Coral Triangle increases, reef fish richness decreases (Bellwood et al. 2012, Mouillot et al.  
103 2013, Parravicini et al. 2013). Also, this marine biodiversity hotspot played several roles in  
104 structuring reef fish communities and acted as a center of origin, overlap, accumulation and  
105 survival of species (Bellwood et al. 2012, Bowen et al. 2013, Bellwood et al. 2015). In the  
106 Atlantic Ocean, the biodiversity center is located in the Caribbean, where more than 800 reef  
107 fish species are found and about ¼ of these being endemic (Floeter et al. 2008). This high  
108 taxonomic diversity translates into countless functions performed by fishes in reef ecosystems  
109 (Mouillot et al. 2014, Villéger et al. 2017). Even though the reef fish assemblages are  
110 taxonomically diverse, several species can be highly functionally redundant (i.e., over-  
111 redundant), and others are functionally vulnerable (i.e., particular functions are performed by  
112 a single species) (Mouillot et al. 2014). As isolation from the Indo-Australian Archipelago  
113 and from surrounding reef areas increases, the functional structure of reef fish communities is  
114 nested in within the functional structure of richer sites (Bender et al. 2017). However,  
115 differences in taxonomic and functional compositions between communities are poorly  
116 known. Thus, the species richness and diversity of functions, as well as the wide distribution  
117 patterns, makes reef fish a model group in beta diversity studies.

118 Tropical reef fish assemblages are grouped into three biogeographic realms, namely  
119 the Atlantic, the Tropical Eastern Pacific and the Indo-Pacific, as well as six biogeographic  
120 regions, based on dissimilarity of species composition (Kulbicki et al. 2013). Each marine  
121 realm has a different evolutionary history (Bellwood et al. 2002, Bellwood and Wainwright  
122 2002, Floeter et al. 2008, Robertson and Craemer 2008). While the Tropical Eastern Pacific  
123 and the Atlantic realms have a history of isolation, due to the presence of biogeographical  
124 barriers, the Indo-Pacific has been more connected through time, acting both as a refuge for  
125 lineages as exporting reef fish diversity to other realms and regions (Bowen et al. 2013,  
126 Pellissier et al. 2014, Bellwood et al. 2015). At these scales is possible to relate variations in  
127 taxonomic and functional diversity with the presence of biogeographic barriers, changes in  
128 sea-level, plate tectonics movement, as well as dispersion, colonization and environmental

129 filters (Renema et al. 2008, Bellwood et al. 2012, Bellwood et al. 2015). The Indo-Pacific  
130 realm has a higher dissimilarity in reef fish species composition within its regions, which  
131 supports processes of dispersion and colonization at broader scales (Kulbicki et al. 2013). On  
132 a broad spatio-temporal scale, environmental predictors may be important to shape diversity  
133 patterns as well as differences in assemblage structure and composition (Parravicini et al.  
134 2013, Pellisier et al. 2014, Bender et al. 2017, Barneche et al. 2019). On a regional scale,  
135 Bellwood and Hughes (2001) observed that shallow-water habitat availability and longitude  
136 were the major predictors of variation in the taxonomic composition of reef fish in the Indo-  
137 Pacific realm. While in the Atlantic and the Tropical Eastern Pacific realms a higher  
138 dissimilarity of reef fish species as well levels of endemism are observed, which may be  
139 associated with the presence of biogeographical barriers between regions (Kulbicki et al.  
140 2013). Historical-evolutionary processes have contributed to shaping the diversity of life at  
141 large scales (Ricklefs 2004). Therefore, relating environmental variables to taxonomic and  
142 functional diversity patterns may explain differences in the composition of reef fish  
143 assemblages across marine realms and its regions. Furthermore, it is unknown the extent to  
144 which environmental predictors shape the patterns of taxonomic and functional beta diversity  
145 in reef fish assemblages at a global scale. Thus, in this study, our main aims were: (i) to  
146 evaluate taxonomic and functional beta diversity patterns of reef fish assemblages on a global  
147 scale, (ii) to investigate the congruence between taxonomic and functional beta diversity  
148 between pairs of reef fish assemblages; and (iii) to determine the relative contribution of  
149 environmental and historical predictors in patterns of taxonomic and functional beta diversity.  
150

## 151 **2. Material and Methods**

### 152 *2.1. Reef fish database*

153 The database was compiled by the GASPAR (General Approach to Species-  
154 Abundance Relationships) research group (Kulbicki et al. 2013, Parravicini et al. 2013,  
155 Mouillot et al. 2014, Bender et al. 2017). The reef fish presence/absence data were compiled  
156 from published works, checklists, monographs and scientific reports (Parravicini et al. 2013).  
157 This data covers 6254 reef fish species distributed in three marine realms (*sensu* Kulbicki et  
158 al. 2013): the Atlantic, Tropical Eastern Pacific and Indo-Pacific (Figure 1-A). Also, the Indo-  
159 Pacific realm was divided into three biogeographic regions: Central Indo-Pacific, Central-  
160 Pacific and Western Indian (*sensu* Kulbicki et al. 2013) (Figure 1-B). The Indo-Pacific realm  
161 was divided into its biogeographical regions due to its vast extent and the high similarity

162 between assemblages, from east to west, over large biogeographical scale (Kulbicki et al.  
163 2013). The marine realms and biogeographic regions were divided into grid cells of 5° by 5°  
164 degrees (~550 km at the Equator), totalizing 303 cells. This grid size was used previously in  
165 reef fish studies (Parravicini et al. 2014, Pelissier et al. 2014) and is considered appropriate  
166 given the resolution and available geographic information for the reef fish fauna.

167

## 168 *2.2. Traits and functional entities*

169 The reef fish species were classified into six categorical traits: 1) Maximum body size  
170 (0-7 cm, 7.1-15 cm, 15.1-30 cm, 30.1-50 cm, 50.1-80 cm and >80 cm); 2) Trophic categories  
171 (herbivorous-detritivorous, planktivorous, piscivorous, omnivorous, macroalgal herbivorous,  
172 invertivorous targeting sessile invertebrates and invertivorous targeting mobile invertebrates);  
173 3) Mobility (sedentary – including territorial species –, mobile between reefs and mobile  
174 within a reef); 4) Period of activity (diurnal, nocturnal or both); 5) Schooling (solitary,  
175 pairing, small groups – 3-20 individuals –, medium groups – 20-50 individuals –, and large  
176 groups – >50 individuals –; and 6) Vertical position in the water column (pelagic,  
177 benthopelagic and benthic). Functional entities were defined as a combination of these six  
178 categorical functional traits. Traits were also available from the GASPAR database (Bellwood  
179 et al. 2004, Ferreira et al. 2004, Halpern and Floeter 2008, Mouillot et al. 2014, Parravicini et  
180 al. 2014, Bender et al. 2017).

181

## 182 *2.3. Environmental data*

183 In GASPAR database, sets of environmental predictors associated with each grid cell  
184 are available. From GASPAR database, we selected seven environmental predictors and  
185 measured its influence on patterns of reef fish beta diversity: current reef area (km<sup>2</sup>), isolation  
186 from the nearest reef areas (km), distance from biodiversity center (km) – the Indo-Australian  
187 Archipelago (IAA) in the Indo-Pacific realm and the Caribbean in the Atlantic realm –,  
188 distance from the Quaternary refugia (km), coral richness, mean sea surface temperature  
189 (SST), and mean chlorophyll-a. The current reef area and coral richness were estimated from  
190 the Coral Reef Millennium Census Project (Andrefouet et al. 2006). The isolation from the  
191 nearest reef areas was obtained based on the connectivity between each site to the 10 nearest  
192 reef habitats (Parravicini et al. 2013). The distance from the biodiversity center was measured

193 for each marine realm, considering the Caribbean for sites in the Atlantic realm and the Indo-  
 194 Australian Archipelago for sites within the Indo-Pacific realm. These predictors – isolation  
 195 from the nearest reef areas and distance from the biodiversity center – have been used as a  
 196 proxy for connectivity (Parravicini et al. 2013, Pellissier et al. 2016, Bender et al. 2017). The  
 197 distance from the Quaternary reef refugia was estimated as the mean past reef area for the  
 198 period which the sea surface temperature was lower than the 10<sup>th</sup> percentile of all periods.  
 199 Also, the mean sea surface temperature and mean chlorophyll-a were extracted for each cell  
 200 with a spatial resolution of 5 arcmins from Bio-ORACLE (Tyberghein et al. 2012, Assis et al.  
 201 2018).

202 To eliminate collinearity between environmental predictors we performed Pearson’s  
 203 correlations between all pairs of variables at the realm and biogeographic region scales. When  
 204 correlation coefficients were  $\geq 0.7$ , one of the variables were excluded considering its  
 205 biological relevance for reef fish assemblages (Figure S1). Resultant variables for each marine  
 206 realm and Indo-Pacific biogeographic regions are in the Supplementary material (Table S1).  
 207 These variables have been widely used in global scale studies of reef fish diversity (Bellwood  
 208 et al. 2005, Parravicini et al. 2014, Bender et al. 2017, Barneche et al. 2019).

209

#### 210 2.4. Data analysis

211 We have assessed beta-diversity patterns at the 5°x5° grid cell scale for the Atlantic,  
 212 the Tropical Eastern Pacific, the Indo-Pacific realms, and for the Central Indo Pacific, Central  
 213 Pacific and Western Indian biogeographic regions of the Indo Pacific realm (Kulbicki et al.  
 214 2013). Taxonomic beta-diversity was measured as the dissimilarity between pairs of reef fish  
 215 assemblages using the Sorensen’s index ( $T\beta_{sor}$ ) and the turnover component ( $T\beta_{sim}$ ) (i.e.,  
 216 species substitution without the influence of richness gradients) (Baselga 2010, Baselga  
 217 2012). The Sorensen’s dissimilarity index is expressed as the following formula

$$218 \quad \mathbf{sor} = \frac{\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}}{2\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}}$$

219 and the turnover component of the Sorensen’s dissimilarity index is expressed by

$$220 \quad \mathbf{sim} = \frac{\mathbf{min}(b, c)}{\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{min}(b, c)}$$

221 Where  $b$  is the number of species that are found exclusively in the first site,  $c$  is the  
 222 number of species exclusive to the second site and  $a$  is the number of species common to both

223 sites. We also calculated the functional beta diversity among pairs of reef fish assemblages.  
224 We first computed functional dissimilarity matrices applying the Gower's distance to sets of  
225 species traits observed in each marine realm and biogeographic region. A Principal  
226 Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) was performed in each of these dissimilarity matrices.  
227 Functional beta diversity was also calculated through the Sorensen's index ( $F\beta_{sor}$ ) and the  
228 turnover component ( $F\beta_{sim}$ ).

229 To test for correlations between the total functional ( $F\beta_{sor}$ ) and taxonomic ( $T\beta_{sor}$ ) beta  
230 diversity, as well as between the functional turnover ( $F\beta_{sim}$ ) component and taxonomic  
231 turnover component ( $T\beta_{sim}$ ), we performed Spearman's correlations for each marine realm  
232 and Indo-Pacific biogeographic region.

233

## 234 2.5. Ordination

235 Ordination methods are commonly used in broad-scale biogeography studies and  
236 allow the identification of biogeographical transition zones (Hattab et al. 2015). Moreover,  
237 ordination represents a useful and heuristic method to visualize a global assemblage distance  
238 matrix and to evaluate the relationships between regions according to their composition (Kreft  
239 and Jetz 2010). For each functional and taxonomic dissimilarity matrix obtained, we  
240 performed a two-dimensional non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) neighbour-  
241 joining algorithm with 20 random starts to find a stable solution (Oksanen et al. 2019). Then,  
242 the values of the two NMDS axes were plotted in individual maps with  $5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$  grid cells for  
243 each marine realm (Atlantic, Tropical Eastern Pacific and Indo Pacific) and the biogeographic  
244 regions of the Indo Pacific (Central Indo Pacific, Central Pacific and Western Indian). Stress  
245 values are the sum of squared differences between the fitted and original distances and were  
246 used to assess how well the configuration of points in the reduced ordination space matched  
247 the original distance matrix (Legendre and Legendre 1998). Stress values lower than 0.05  
248 provide excellent representation in reduced dimensions,  $< 0.1$  is a great ordination,  $< 0.2$  is a  
249 good ordination value, and stress values greater than 0.2 provide a poor representation (Clarke  
250 1993).

## 251 2.6. Environmental predictors and taxonomic/functional beta diversity

252 To estimate the relative importance of each environmental predictor in the observed  
253 patterns of  $T\beta_{sor}$ ,  $T\beta_{sim}$ ,  $F\beta_{sor}$  and  $F\beta_{sim}$  in each marine realm and Indo-Pacific

254 biogeographic regions we used the ‘envfit’ function in R package *vegan* (Oksanen et al.  
255 2019). This function fits the environmental predictors onto an ordination and estimates the  
256 strength of the correlations between the NMDS ordinations and the selected environmental  
257 predictors. Also, the ‘envfit’ function provides an objective interpretation of the results of the  
258 ordination analysis and generates a measure of fitted vectors, as well as significant value  
259 based on a permutation test with 999 permutations.

260 All data analyses were performed using the software R 3.6.1 (R Core Team 2019) and  
261 the following packages: betapart (Baselga and Orme 2018), cluster (Maechler et al. 2019),  
262 *vegan* (Oksanen et al. 2019), recluster (Dapporto et al. 2015), rgdal (Bivand et al. 2019),  
263 *shape* (Soetaert 2018), GISTools (Brunsdon and Chen 2014), Hmisc (Harrell 2019), corrplot  
264 (Wei and Simko 2017). We also used the functions ‘functional.beta.pair5’ (available in  
265 <<https://github.com/csdambros/R-functions/blob/master/FunctionalBetaPart.R>>, Dambros,  
266 C.) and ‘Map the world’ (Albouy, C. and Leprieur, F.) in the analysis.

267

### 268 **3. Results**

269 For the Atlantic and Tropical Eastern Pacific realms, as well as for the Western Indian  
270 region, the NMDS ordinations led to satisfactory projections of dissimilarity matrices into  
271 two-dimensional space (Table 1), as seen in the relatively low-stress values obtained. High-  
272 stress values were observed for the Indo-Pacific realm where taxonomic and functional  
273 turnover components corresponded to 0.211 and 0.233, respectively. A high-stress value  
274 (0.212) was also observed for the taxonomic turnover of the Central Indo-Pacific region.

275 The spatial patterns for the total taxonomic and functional beta diversity and turnover  
276 component were visualized using color maps, where similar colors in grid cells predicted  
277 assemblages with similar taxonomic (species) or functional (traits) composition. Therefore,  
278 grid cells with different colors are predicted to have more dissimilar species composition or  
279 functional group structure. In the Atlantic realm, the patterns observed for total taxonomic  
280 beta diversity and its turnover component were very similar (Figure 2-A), where a clear  
281 separation between the Eastern and Western Atlantic reef fish faunas, and from the Brazilian  
282 oceanic islands can be visualized. However, the total functional beta diversity values reveal  
283 that the Caribbean and the Brazilian coast have similar functional structure (Figure 2-A). Yet  
284 there is a clear division between the functional turnover present in the Caribbean and the  
285 Brazilian coast. In the Tropical Eastern Pacific realm, total taxonomic and functional beta



286 diversity, as well its turnover components, display different spatial patterns. A latitudinal  
287 gradient is observed for taxonomic turnover values, while functional turnover reveals a clear  
288 separation between north, south and Tropical Eastern Pacific oceanic islands (Figure 3-A). In  
289 the Indo-Pacific realm, total taxonomic and functional beta diversity reveals a spatially  
290 homogeneous pattern, yet differences appear in the turnover component (Figure 4-A). The  
291 pattern observed for taxonomic beta diversity is a longitudinal (East-West) color gradient,  
292 with some exceptions to isolated oceanic islands, as Desventuradas Islands and Easter Island  
293 (near to Tropical Eastern Pacific) and reef areas located at higher latitudes (Figure 4-A). At  
294 this scale, the taxonomic turnover pattern has revealed the existence of three regions with  
295 similar turnover values among pairs of assemblages: the Western Indian, the Central Pacific  
296 along with the Central-Indo Pacific, and the Hawaiian Archipelago. While there is  
297 homogeneity in total functional beta diversity values for the Indo-Pacific realm, the turnover  
298 component reveals there are similar values for reef fish assemblages that inhabit the Indo-  
299 Australian Archipelago area, a biodiversity hotspot (Figure 4-A). At the regional scale, the  
300 Central Indo-Pacific showed a homogenous pattern of variation in species composition  
301 (Figure S2-A), with exceptions in Western Australia. However, taxonomic turnover displays a  
302 heterogeneous pattern. Moreover, both functional beta diversity and functional turnover have  
303 a homogeneous pattern in the Indo-Australian Archipelago and its nearby regions, but as the  
304 distance from this area increases, functional dissimilarity also increases (Figure S2-A). Both  
305 total taxonomic and functional beta diversity have similar patterns in the Central Pacific  
306 region (Figure S3-A), which may imply that changes in taxonomic composition are followed  
307 by changes in functional composition. The Western Indian showed a north-south gradient in  
308 total taxonomic beta diversity, with the most dissimilar assemblages located in southern  
309 Africa (Figure S4-A).

310 Overall, practically all environmental variables were significant when correlated with  
311 two NMDS axes (Table 2, Tables S2-S3-S4). Great differences were not detected in the  
312 influence of environmental predictors in both taxonomic and functional beta diversity as well  
313 as turnover component (Tables S3-S4).

314 For the Atlantic realm, mean sea surface temperature was highly correlated with the  
315 first NMDS axis, while mean chlorophyll-a was strongly associated with the second NMDS  
316 axis (Table 2). In the Tropical Eastern Pacific realm, the distance from the biodiversity center  
317 was strongly associated with the first NMDS axis and isolation from the nearest reef areas  
318 was highly associated with the second NMDS axis. For the Indo-Pacific realm, current reef

319 area, isolation from the nearest reef areas and mean sea surface temperature were strongly  
 320 associated with the first NMDS axis, while mean chlorophyll-a was associated with the  
 321 second NDMS axis (Table 2). At the regional scale, the Central Indo-Pacific beta-diversity  
 322 values were influenced by distance from the biodiversity center, mean chlorophyll-a and  
 323 isolation from the nearest reef area in the second NMDS axis. In the Central Pacific, isolation  
 324 from Quaternary refugia as well as coral richness has influenced the first NMDS axis, while  
 325 the distance from the biodiversity center and current reef area were highly correlated with the  
 326 second NMDS axis. Finally, for the Western Indian, reef area, and distance from Quaternary  
 327 refugia showed high correlated values with the first NMDS axis, and mean chlorophyll-a and  
 328 coral richness were strongly associated with the second NMDS axis (Table S2).

329 Overall, the environmental predictors with the greater relative importance ( $R^2 \geq 0.6$ )  
 330 were coral richness, distance from the biodiversity center, distance from Quaternary refugia  
 331 and isolation from the nearest reef areas (Figures 2-C, 3-C, 4-C). For the Indo-Pacific regions  
 332 (Central Indo-Pacific, Central Pacific and Western Indian) the environmental predictors with  
 333 the greater relative importance were distance from Quaternary refugia and coral richness  
 334 (Figures S1-C, S2-C, S3-C).

335 Correlations among total taxonomic and functional beta diversity values have revealed  
 336 that variations in these components are mostly congruent in global reef fish faunas. However,  
 337 pairwise values for total taxonomic beta diversity are higher than those of total functional beta  
 338 diversity (e.g.,  $T\beta_{sor}$  varied from 0.0 – 1.0, while  $F\beta_{sor}$  varied from 0.0 – 0.15 in the Atlantic).  
 339 Assemblages of the Tropical Eastern Pacific showed the higher correlation value ( $\rho = 0.84$ ;  
 340  $p < 0.001$ ) between total functional ( $F\beta_{sor}$ ) and total taxonomic ( $T\beta_{sor}$ ) beta diversity, followed  
 341 by the Atlantic ( $\rho = 0.80$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ) and Indo-Pacific ( $\rho = 0.70$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ) realms  
 342 (Figures 5-A, 5-C, 5-E). The turnover component had lower, yet significant, correlation  
 343 values (Figures 5-B, 5-D, 5-F). In general, Indo-Pacific biogeographic regions depicted highly  
 344 correlated total functional ( $F\beta_{sor}$ ) and total taxonomic ( $T\beta_{sor}$ ) beta diversity (Figures S4-A, S4-  
 345 C, S4-E). However, the functional ( $F\beta_{sim}$ ) and taxonomic ( $T\beta_{sim}$ ) turnover component had low  
 346 correlation values.

347

#### 348 **4. Discussion**

349 In our study, we mapped taxonomic and functional beta diversity between pairs of reef  
 350 fish assemblages at a global scale and we observed that patterns differ across biogeographical

351 realms. While taxonomic and functional composition of assemblages are in line with  
352 biogeographic regions for the Atlantic, as well as observed in other studies (Floeter et al.  
353 2008, Cowman and Bellwood 2013, Kulbicki et al. 2013). In Tropical Eastern Pacific and the  
354 Indo-Pacific realms, differences in taxonomic and functional structure are not related to the  
355 boundaries that limit/establish regions, as found in other studies (Cowman and Bellwood  
356 2013, Kulbicki et al. 2013). These differences in beta diversity observed in each marine realm  
357 and biogeographic region can be related to the different evolutionary histories or the evolution  
358 of reef fish taxonomic and functional groups (Bellwood et al. 2015). On the other hand, we  
359 identified that environmental and historical/geographic predictors on taxonomic and  
360 functional beta diversity varies according to realms. For instance, coral richness is the most  
361 important predictor to the Atlantic realm, distance from the biodiversity center to the Tropical  
362 Eastern Pacific and from the Quaternary refugia to the Indo-Pacific realm. These results are in  
363 accordance with previous studies, who identified these predictors how the most important  
364 drivers that explain reef fish diversity (Parravicini et al. 2013, Pellissier et al. 2016, Bender et  
365 al. 2017). We have also found that greater differences in species composition ( $T\beta_{sor}$ ) between  
366 assemblages are followed by functional differences ( $F\beta_{sor}$ ), yet variations in functional beta  
367 diversity were smaller than variations in taxonomic beta diversity.

368         In the Atlantic realm, the Mid-Atlantic Ridge, the freshwater outflow from the  
369 Amazon and Orinoco rivers, as well as Benguela barrier act as filters, limiting the dispersion  
370 of reef fishes (Floeter et al. 2008, Pinheiro et al. 2018). However, it is possible that some  
371 species can occasionally cross these inter-regional barriers and allow colonization of new  
372 groups of species (Floeter et al. 2008). More than 60% of species found in the Eastern  
373 Atlantic are restricted to this region (Floeter et al. 2008). Despite the presence of the Amazon-  
374 Orinoco outflow barrier, which separates the Southwestern Atlantic and Northwestern  
375 Atlantic (Caribbean) reef fish assemblages, the observed patterns of total taxonomic beta  
376 diversity and taxonomic turnover component were similar (Figure 2-A). These results could  
377 be associated with a higher number of shared species and sister's species between these  
378 regions (Floeter et al. 2008). Also, we observed similar patterns of total functional beta  
379 diversity between the Southwest Atlantic and the Northwest Atlantic, which can be explained  
380 by a similar functional structure – relative to trophic groups – identified for Atlantic Ocean  
381 reef fish assemblages (Bender et al. 2013). Total beta diversity patterns identified for the Mid-  
382 Atlantic Ridge, Fernando de Noronha Archipelago, Rocas Atoll and Vitória-Trindade  
383 Seamount Chain oceanic islands can be related with isolation from the mainland and the

384 distance from the biodiversity center (Floeter et al. 2008, Bender et al. 2013, Quimbayo et al.  
385 2019). Also, the total functional differences for the above-mentioned islands are possibly  
386 related to differences in traits. In the Atlantic, as well as in other realms, island reef fish  
387 assemblages are characterized by a predominance of traits as large body size and carnivorous  
388 diets (Bender et al. 2013, Kulbicki et al. 2015).

389         In the Tropical Eastern Pacific (TEP), the latitudinal gradient in taxonomic turnover  
390 could be related with both historical origins of the realm (Robertson and Cramer 2009) and  
391 reef fish range size (Mora and Robertson 2005a, Alzate et al. 2019). For instance, the Gulf of  
392 California began to form ~25 Mya, favoring that population in the north of the TEP became  
393 isolated and contributing to the development of the distinctive tropical and subtropical fauna.  
394 While in the Isthmus of Panama (~3 Mya), several tropical species from the Caribbean were  
395 isolated favoring another fish fauna (Robertson and Cramer 2009). On the other hand, this  
396 realm has acted mainly as a center of accumulation for reef fish species (Bellwood et al. 2015)  
397 as a result of the strong isolation by the Isthmus of Panama, the Gulf of California and the  
398 Eastern Pacific barrier (Zapata and Robertson 2006). Few studies have examined diversity  
399 patterns of reef fish assemblages in the TEP (Mora and Robertson 2005a, Mora and  
400 Robertson 2005b, Robertson and Cramer 2009, Quimbayo et al. 2017). TEP presents high  
401 endemism levels, as well as high functional diversity, which is commonly represented by  
402 vulnerable reef fish species (Quimbayo et al. 2017). Functional turnover splits north, south  
403 and oceanic islands of TEP, which could be related to the thermal gradients along the north-  
404 south extension (Hastings 2000). The variation in sea surface temperature may select  
405 functional traits, such as body size (Kulbicki et al. 2015) and diet (Floeter et al. 2005), and  
406 shape functional turnover among these areas. Oceanic islands, for example, are subsets of  
407 mainland coastal species and transpacific residents in the TEP (Robertson et al 2004,  
408 Robertson and Cramer 2009), which could imply in the taxonomic and functional  
409 dissimilarity observed. Moreover, reef fish communities from northern TEP have a high  
410 degree of functional redundancy (Aguilar-Medrano and Calderon-Aguilera 2016), which can  
411 be associated with a similar functional beta diversity pattern observed for this region.

412         The Indo Pacific realm has the main reef fish biodiversity hotspot, named the Indo-  
413 Australian Archipelago. In the Miocene (23 – 5 Mya), this biodiversity hotspot was the major  
414 source of lineage exportation for the Pacific and Indian Oceans (Bellwood et al. 2015).  
415 Moreover, the Indo-Australian Archipelago acted as a center of accumulation, survival and  
416 origin of reef fish species (Cowman and Bellwood 2013, Bellwood et al. 2015), being

417 composed primarily by species with large geographic ranges (Connolly et al. 2003). However,  
418 during the formation of the Indo-Australian Archipelago, a biodiversity hotspot was already  
419 existent in the Western Indian region, the West Tethys (Renema et al. 2008). Over  
420 evolutionary time, the Indo-Pacific realm has remained largely connected, especially in the  
421 Coral Triangle where shallow-water habitats have been available and connected (Pellissier et  
422 al. 2014). This connection explains the similarity in functional and taxonomic beta diversity  
423 patterns identified for this realm. Diversity outposts, as Desventuradas Islands and Easter  
424 Island have presented dissimilar values, which could be related to high level of endemism,  
425 low latitude and distance from the Indo-Australian Archipelago (Allen 2008, Dyer and  
426 Westneat 2010, Kulbicki et al. 2013). The total functional similarity observed in the Indo-  
427 Pacific realm may be related to the high functional redundancy (over-redundancy) of the reef  
428 fish fauna within its biogeographic regions (Mouillot et al. 2014). The functional  
429 homogeneity of the Indo-Australian Archipelago (Figures 4 and S2-A) could be related to the  
430 contribution of certain traits to the diversity of this region, as small-bodied, planktivorous and  
431 diurnal species (Kulbicki et al. 2015, Ottimofiore et al 2017, Floeter et al. 2018).

432         The main environmental and geographic predictors for total taxonomic and functional  
433 beta diversity across all realms are coral richness, distance from the biodiversity center and  
434 distance from Quaternary refugia. It is well known that these predictors are important to the  
435 structuring of reef fish communities at different spatial scales (Arias-González et al. 2008,  
436 Rodríguez-Zaragoza and Arias-González 2008, Bender et al. 2013, Parravicini et al. 2013,  
437 Pellissier et al. 2014, Bender et al. 2017, Barneche et al. 2019, Quimbayo et al. 2019). The  
438 functional and taxonomic diversity of reef fish assemblages varies in habitats dominated by  
439 different coral species and with varying structural complexity (Komyakova et al. 2018), since  
440 corals provide microhabitats, shelter and food resources for coral reef fish species  
441 (Komyakova et al. 2013). In Caribbean reefs, differences in coral species can drive  
442 differences in reef fish species, in addition to other environmental variables (Arias-González  
443 et al. 2008, Rodríguez-Zaragoza and Arias-González 2008). Across the entire Indo-Pacific, an  
444 exceptionally similar pattern of coral and reef fish species richness in assemblages is  
445 observed, driven by coral area (Bellwood and Hughes 2001).

446         The distance from the biodiversity center was the environmental predictor that had  
447 higher relative importance for both total taxonomic and functional beta diversity in TEP ( $R^2$   
448  $=0.89$  and  $R^2 = 0.74$ , respectively). In our study, two biodiversity centers were considered: the  
449 Caribbean, for the Atlantic realm and the Indo-Australian Archipelago, for the Indo-Pacific

450 realm. Both regions show different ecological and evolutionary history (Cowman & Bellwood  
451 2013, Floeter et al. 2008). The Indo-Australian Archipelago has acted as a center of origin and  
452 was able to export reef fish species, mainly for the Indian and Pacific Oceans (Bellwood et al.  
453 2012, Bellwood et al. 2015). The Caribbean represents only about 20% of the richness species  
454 found on the Indo-Pacific realm (Bellwood and Hughes 2001) but is still a biodiversity center  
455 in the Atlantic Ocean (Floeter et al. 2008). The distance from the center of biodiversity largely  
456 influences reef fish assemblage structure, from a taxonomic, functional and phylogenetic  
457 perspective (Bellwood and Hughes 2001, Bender et al. 2013, Leprieur et al. 2016, Bender et  
458 al. 2017).

459         At the marine realm scale, historical and evolutionary processes can explain recent  
460 patterns of reef fish assembly (Leprieur et al. 2016). The Quaternary period (~2.6 Ma to  
461 present) was characterized by fluctuations in global temperatures and sea-level shifts  
462 (Pellissier et al. 2014). Some stable coral reef areas may have developed a refugia role for reef  
463 organisms (Cowman and Bellwood 2013), promoting coral reef fish diversity (Pelissier et al.  
464 2014). For instance, areas near to the Quaternary refugia have higher reef fish diversity,  
465 highlighting the importance of stable reef areas for the maintenance of species during the  
466 Quaternary (Pellissier et al. 2014). The Indo-Pacific realm, including the Indo-Australian  
467 Archipelago, Maldives, Madagascar and Red Sea areas, maintained stable and extensive coral  
468 reef refugia during sea level and temperature variations (Pellissier et al. 2014). This evidence  
469 is supported by hypotheses that consider these areas as centers of origin, overlap, survival and  
470 export of reef fish species (Bellwood et al. 2015). However, for the Atlantic realm, the  
471 distance from Quaternary refugia was not a variable with high relative importance for  
472 observed patterns of taxonomic and functional beta diversity ( $R^2 = 0.26$  and  $R^2 = 0.23$ ,  
473 respectively). During the cold Quaternary periods, only limited areas of the Caribbean were  
474 suitable for coral reefs, limiting the possible refugia for reef fish species (Pellissier et al.  
475 2014). Beyond the Caribbean, the Indo-Australian Archipelago provides refuge from  
476 extinction in peripheral areas, due to its extensive shallow-water availability (Bellwood and  
477 Hughes 2001).

478         For total taxonomic beta diversity, isolation from the nearest reef areas had greater  
479 importance ( $R^2 = 0.62$ ) in the Indo-Pacific realm. Studies have already shown the influence of  
480 this isolation measure on taxonomic and functional diversity for tropical reef fish in tropical  
481 environments (Kulbicki et al. 2013, Bender et al. 2017). The Indo Pacific realm is  
482 characterized by the connectivity between its biogeographic regions, which enables dispersal

483 across the Indian and Pacific Oceans (Cowman and Bellwood 2013). Furthermore, isolation  
 484 leads to functional and taxonomic nestedness of reef fish assemblages (Bender et al. 2017).  
 485 Despite being an important variable in explaining current patterns of reef fish richness at  
 486 different spatial scales (Bellwood and Hughes 2001, Bellwood et al. 2005, Parravicini et al.  
 487 2013), current reef area was not a good predictor for taxonomic and functional beta diversity  
 488 in reef fish assemblages at the marine realm scale.

489 Our results demonstrate that functional beta diversity is positively correlated with  
 490 taxonomic beta diversity, across marine realms and biogeographic regions. That is, greater  
 491 variations in taxonomic composition between pairs of assemblages are followed by greater  
 492 changes in functional composition. Studies that correlate both functional and taxonomic beta  
 493 diversity are few in marine ecosystems. Atlantic reef fish communities have higher functional  
 494 group richness in more speciose assemblages (Halpern and Floeter 2008). However, there is  
 495 an uneven species distribution within functional groups. There are many vulnerable functional  
 496 groups, where the functions are represented by a single species, showing high functional  
 497 vulnerability (Halpern and Floeter 2008, Mouillot et al. 2014). Moreover, even though coral  
 498 reefs are highly diversified and characterized by over-redundancy, high vulnerability and the  
 499 lack of functions at the local scale could still compromise reef dynamics (Mouillot et al.  
 500 2014).

501

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752 **6. Tables:**

753 Table 1. Stress values obtained from two-dimensional NMDS ordinations of taxonomic and functional beta-  
 754 diversity of reef fish faunas.

<b>Realms</b>	<b>Stress values</b>			
	<b>T<math>\beta</math><sub>sor</sub></b>	<b>T<math>\beta</math><sub>sim</sub></b>	<b>F<math>\beta</math><sub>sor</sub></b>	<b>F<math>\beta</math><sub>sim</sub></b>
Atlantic	0.045	0.063	0.035	0.108
Tropical Eastern Pacific	0.049	0.077	0.00005	0
Indo-Pacific	0.105	0.211	0.037	0.233
<b>Indo-Pacific biogeographic regions</b>	<b>Stress values</b>			
	<b>T<math>\beta</math><sub>sor</sub></b>	<b>T<math>\beta</math><sub>sim</sub></b>	<b>F<math>\beta</math><sub>sor</sub></b>	<b>F<math>\beta</math><sub>sim</sub></b>
Central Indo-Pacific	0.086	0.212	0.089	0.157
Central Pacific	0.063	0.156	0.040	0.195
Western Indian	0.074	0.166	0.076	0.172

755 Legend: T $\beta$ <sub>sor</sub>: total taxonomic beta-diversity (Sorensen index); T $\beta$ <sub>sim</sub>: taxonomic turnover; F $\beta$ <sub>sor</sub>: total  
 756 functional beta-diversity (Sorensen index), and F $\beta$ <sub>sim</sub>: functional turnover.

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776 Table 2. The association between environmental predictors with the NMDS ordination scores for total taxonomic  
 777 ( $T\beta_{sor}$ ) and total functional beta diversity ( $F\beta_{sor}$ ) of reef fish assemblages in the Atlantic, the Tropical Eastern  
 778 Pacific and the Indo-Pacific realms. Association is represented by regression coefficients from “envfit” analysis.  
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Predictors	Atlantic realm – $T\beta_{sor}$			Atlantic realm – $F\beta_{sor}$		
	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$
Reef area	-0.62	0.78	0.31***	-0.58	-0.82	0.25**
Refugia	0.74	-0.67	0.26**	0.73	0.69	0.23*
Chlorophyll-a	0.47	0.89	0.06	-0.10	1.00	0.17*
Isolation	0.48	-0.88	0.43***	0.77	0.64	0.38**
SST	-0.96	0.27	0.44***	-0.72	-0.70	0.40***
Coral richness	-0.76	0.66	0.67***	-0.58	-0.82	0.60***
Predictors	TEP realm – $T\beta_{sor}$			TEP realm – $F\beta_{sor}$		
	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$
Reef area	-0.61	-0.79	0.24	-0.52	0.86	0.25**
Refugia	-0.53	-0.85	0.07	-0.36	0.93	0.02
Chlorophyll-a	0.86	0.52	0.10	0.69	-0.72	0.16
Distance BC	0.89	-0.47	0.89***	0.99	0.13	0.74***
Isolation	0.04	-1.00	0.49**	0.19	0.98	0.44**
SST	-0.35	0.94	0.53***	-0.70	-0.71	0.23
Coral richness	-0.57	0.83	0.25	-0.86	-0.51	0.10
Predictors	Indo-Pacific realm – $T\beta_{sor}$			Indo-Pacific realm – $F\beta_{sor}$		
	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$
Reef area	0.82	0.57	0.03*	0.96	0.27	0.01
Refugia	-0.87	-0.49	0.62***	-0.64	0.77	0.52***
Chlorophyll-a	0.35	-0.94	0.16***	0.82	-0.57	0.00
Isolation	-0.96	-0.28	0.62***	-0.91	0.42	0.40***
SST	0.90	0.45	0.37***	0.99	-0.11	0.13***
Coral richness	0.89	0.46	0.38***	0.98	0.18	0.07***

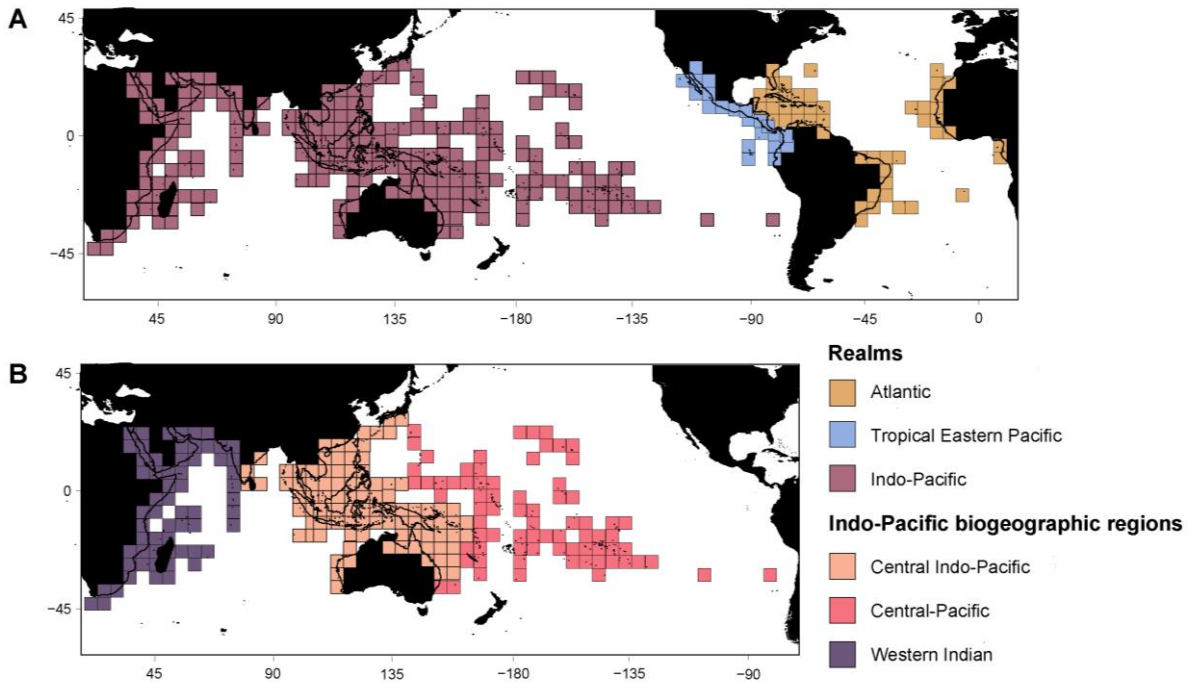
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 781 Predictors: Reef area: current reef area; Refugia: distance from the Quaternary Refugia; Chlo: mean chlorophyll-a;  
 782 Distance BC: distance from Biodiversity center; SST: mean sea surface temperature; Isolation: isolation from the ne  
 783 arest reef areas and Coral richness. \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; \*  $p < 0.05$ .  
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788 **7. Figures:**  
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791 Figure 1. The global distribution of reef fish assemblages in (A) three marine realms and (B) three biogeographic  
792 regions within the Indo-Pacific realm. Based on marine realms and biogeographic regions from the study of  
793 Kulbicki et al. (2013).

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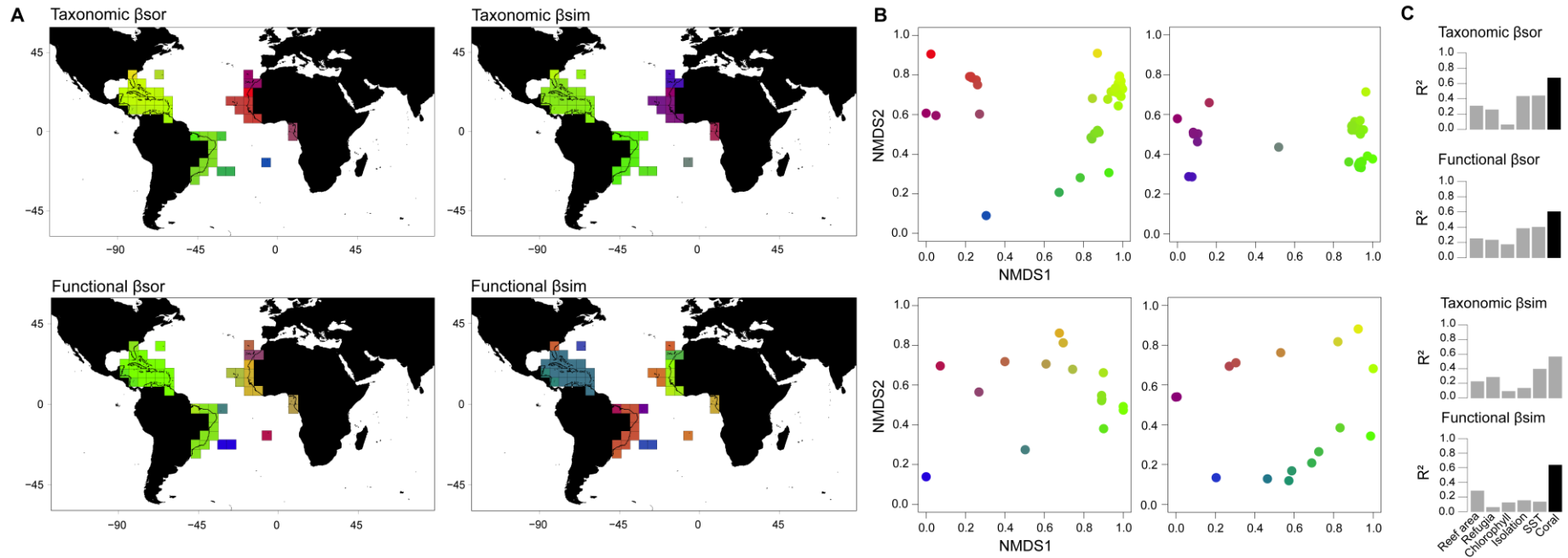
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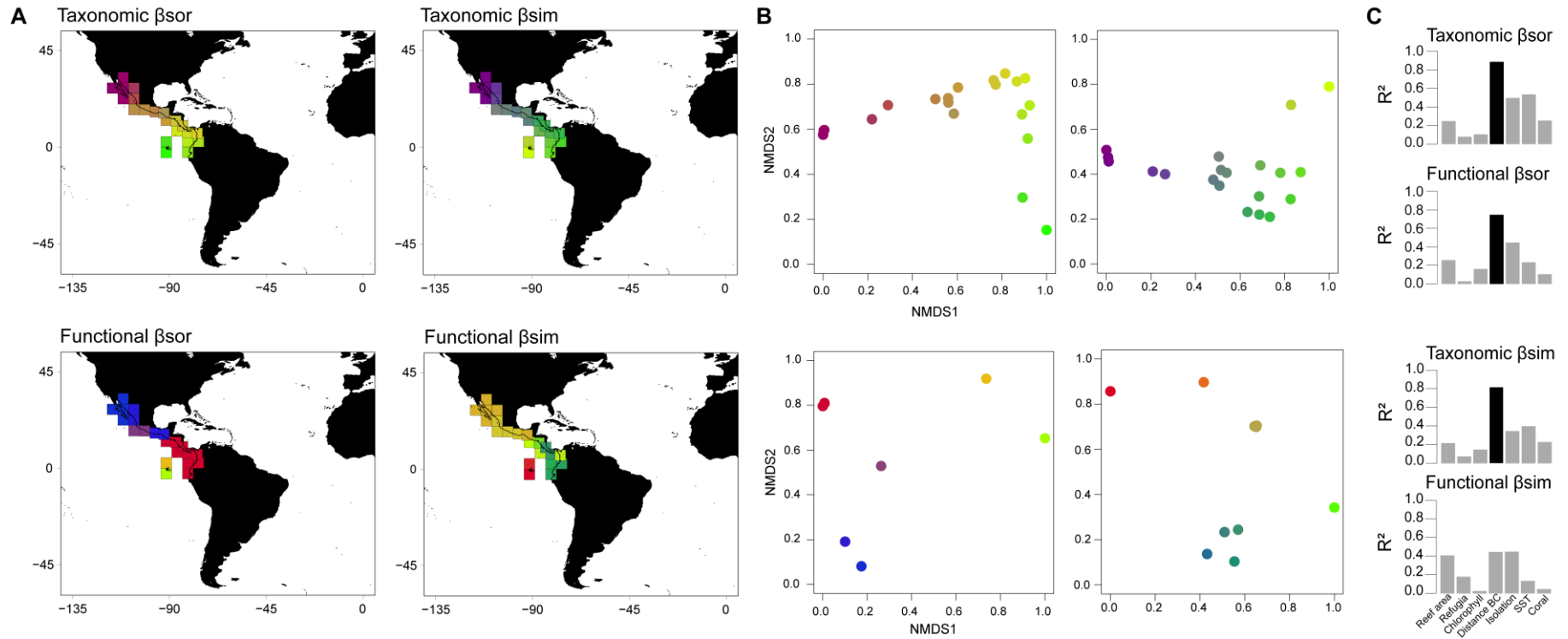
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804 Figure 2. The Atlantic reef fish beta-diversity patterns inferred from non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination based on (A) the total taxonomic beta diversity  
 805 (Taxonomic  $\beta_{sor}$ ) and total functional beta diversity (Functional  $\beta_{sor}$ ) as well as the taxonomic turnover component (Taxonomic  $\beta_{sim}$ ) and functional turnover component  
 806 (Functional  $\beta_{sim}$ ). In (B) Each dot in the NMDS scatters plots represents a grid cell and colors are identical to those in the map. (C) The relative importance ( $R^2$ ) of  
 807 environmental predictors (Current reef area; Distance from Quaternary Refugia; mean Chlorophyll-a; Distance from the biodiversity center; Isolation from the nearest reef  
 808 areas; Mean sea surface temperature and Coral richness) to taxonomic and functional beta diversity from the “envfit” analysis. Black bars denote environmental variables with  
 809 relative importance  $R^2 \geq 0.6$ .

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814 Figure 3. The Tropical Eastern Pacific reef fish beta-diversity patterns inferred from non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination based on (A) the total  
 815 taxonomic beta diversity (Taxonomic  $\beta_{sor}$ ) and total functional beta diversity (Functional  $\beta_{sor}$ ) as well as the taxonomic turnover component (Taxonomic  $\beta_{sim}$ ) and functional  
 816 turnover component (Functional  $\beta_{sim}$ ). In (B) Each dot in the NMDS scatters plots represents a grid cell and colors are identical to those in the map. (C) The relative  
 817 importance ( $R^2$ ) of environmental predictors (Current reef area; Distance from Quaternary Refugia; mean Chlorophyll-a; Distance from the biodiversity center; Isolation from  
 818 the nearest reef areas; Mean sea surface temperature and Coral richness) to taxonomic and functional beta diversity from the “envfit” analysis. Black bars denote  
 819 environmental variables with relative importance  $R^2 \geq 0.6$ .

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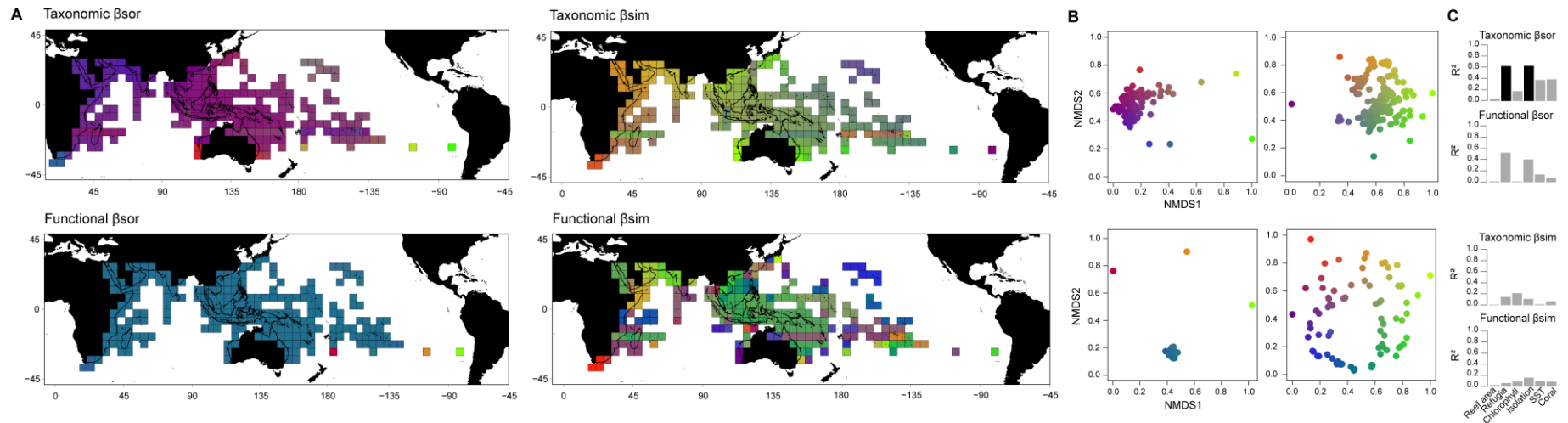
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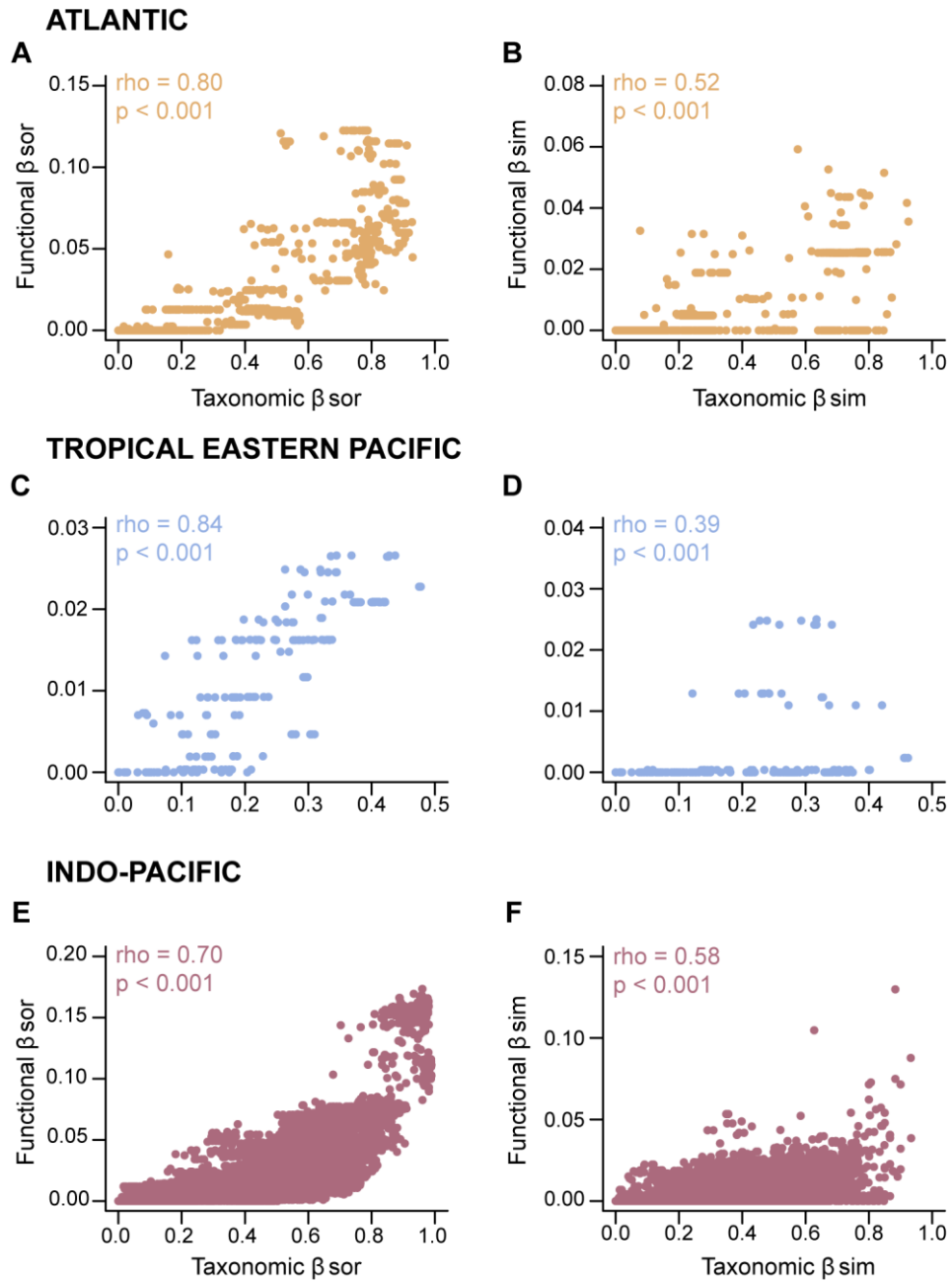
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Figure 4. The Indo-Pacific reef fish beta-diversity patterns inferred from non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination based on (A) the total taxonomic beta diversity (Taxonomic  $\beta_{sor}$ ) and total functional beta diversity (Functional  $\beta_{sor}$ ) as well as the taxonomic turnover component (Taxonomic  $\beta_{sim}$ ) and functional turnover component (Functional  $\beta_{sim}$ ). In (B) Each dot in the NMDS scatters plots represents a grid cell and colours are identical to those in the map. (C) The relative importance ( $R^2$ ) of environmental predictors (Current reef area; Distance from Quaternary Refugia; mean Chlorophyll-a; Isolation from the nearest reef areas; Mean sea surface temperature and Coral richness) to taxonomic and functional beta diversity from the “envfit” analysis. Black bars denote environmental variables with relative importance  $R^2 \geq 0.6$ .

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834 Figure 5. Spearman's correlation coefficients between taxonomic and functional beta diversity, including total  
 835 beta diversity (left hand side) and the turnover (right hand side) component of reef fish assemblages in the  
 836 Atlantic (A, B), the Tropical Eastern Pacific (C, D) and the Indo-Pacific realms (E, F).

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## 8. Supplementary material:

Table S1. Geographic and environmental predictors utilized in each marine realm and biogeographic regions.

<b>Realms</b>	<b>Variables</b>
Atlantic	Reef area; Refugia; Chlo; Isolation; SST and Coral richness
Tropical Eastern Pacific	Reef area; Refugia; Chlo; Distance BC; Isolation; SST and Coral richness
Indo-Pacific	Reef area; Refugia; Chlo; Isolation; SST and Coral richness
<b>Indo-Pacific biogeographic regions</b>	
Central Indo-Pacific	Reef area; Refugia; Chlo; Distance BC; Isolation and Coral richness
Central Pacific	Reef area; Refugia; Chlo; Distance BC; SST and Coral richness
Western Indian	Reef area; Refugia; Chlo; Distance BC; Isolation and Coral richness

Legend: Reef area: current reef area; Refugia: distance from the Quaternary Refugia; Chlo: mean Chlorophyll-a; Distance BC: distance from the biodiversity center; SST: mean sea surface temperature; Isolation: isolation from the nearest reef areas and Coral richness.

Table S2. The environmental predictors considered in this study for the Central Indo-Pacific, the Central Pacific and the Western Indian biogeographic regions and their association with the NMDS ordination scores for taxonomic ( $T\beta_{sor}$ ) and functional beta diversity ( $F\beta_{sor}$ ) of reef fish assemblages. Association is represented by regression coefficients from “envfit” analysis.

Predictors	Central Indo-Pacific – $T\beta_{sor}$			Central Indo-Pacific – $F\beta_{sor}$		
	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$
Reef area	0.25	-0.97	0.02	-0.13	0.99	0.03
Refugia	-0.46	-0.89	0.46***	-0.34	-0.94	0.39***
Chlorophyll-a	0.01	1.00	0.11*	0.78	-0.63	0.01
Distance BC	-0.07	-1.00	0.14**	-0.97	-0.26	0.32***
Isolation	-0.89	-0.46	0.55***	-0.10	-1.00	0.38***
Coral richness	0.69	0.72	0.11**	0.42	0.91	0.39***
Predictors	Central Pacific – $T\beta_{sor}$			Central Pacific – $F\beta_{sor}$		
	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$
Reef area	0.58	0.82	0.07	0.21	-0.98	0.07
Refugia	-1.00	-0.04	0.69***	-0.92	0.39	0.85***
Chlorophyll-a	0.20	-0.98	0.03	-0.02	-1.00	0.07
Distance BC	-0.96	-0.27	0.10*	-0.08	1.00	0.10*
Mean SST	0.80	0.60	0.56***	0.59	0.81	0.54***
Coral richness	0.97	-0.26	0.40***	0.87	-0.50	0.25***
Predictors	Western Indian – $T\beta_{sor}$			Western Indian – $F\beta_{sor}$		
	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$
Reef area	0.91	-0.43	0.12*	-0.19	0.98	0.14**
Refugia	-0.99	-0.17	0.75***	-0.74	-0.68	0.36***
Chlorophyll-a	-0.05	1.00	0.33**	-0.06	-1.00	0.07
Distance BC	-0.90	-0.44	0.16**	-1.00	-0.08	0.33***
Isolation	-0.74	-0.68	0.41***	-0.98	-0.21	0.19***
Coral richness	0.46	-0.89	0.68***	0.21	0.98	0.42***

Predictors: Reef area: current reef area; Refugia: distance from the Quaternary Refugia; Chlorophyll-a: mean chlorophyll-a; Distance BC: distance from biodiversity center; SST: mean sea surface temperature; Isolation: isolation from the nearest reef areas and Coral richness. \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; \*  $p < 0.05$ .

Table S3. The association between environmental predictors with the NMDS ordination scores for taxonomic ( $T\beta_{sim}$ ) and functional turnover ( $F\beta_{sim}$ ) of reef fish assemblages in the Atlantic, the Tropical Eastern Pacific and the Indo-Pacific realms. Association is represented by regression coefficients from “envfit” analysis.

Predictors	Atlantic realm – $T\beta_{sim}$			Atlantic realm – $F\beta_{sim}$		
	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$
Reef area	-0.29	0.96	0.23**	0.99	-0.12	0.29***
Refugia	0.23	-0.97	0.28***	-0.99	-0.14	0.06
Chlorophyll-a	0.26	0.97	0.09	-0.24	0.97	0.12*
Isolation	0.86	0.50	0.13*	-0.97	0.24	0.15*
SST	-0.40	0.92	0.40***	0.73	-0.69	0.13*
Coral richness	-0.35	0.94	0.56***	0.97	-0.24	0.64***
Predictors	TEP realm – $T\beta_{sim}$			TEP realm – $F\beta_{sim}$		
	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$
Reef area	-0.72	0.69	0.21	0.07	-1.00	0.40**
Refugia	-0.96	-0.27	0.07	0.14	-0.99	0.18
Chlorophyll-a	0.46	-0.89	0.14	-0.15	0.99	0.02
Distance BC	0.83	0.56	0.82***	-0.81	0.58	0.44**
Isolation	-0.03	1.00	0.34*	-0.51	-0.86	0.45**
SST	-0.35	-0.94	0.39*	0.59	0.81	0.13
Coral richness	-0.53	-0.85	0.23	0.96	-0.27	0.04
Predictors	Indo-Pacific realm – $T\beta_{sim}$			Indo-Pacific realm – $F\beta_{sim}$		
	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$
Reef area	0.55	0.83	0.00	0.84	0.54	0.02
Refugia	-0.01	-1.00	0.14***	-0.78	-0.63	0.06***
Chlorophyll-a	-0.83	0.56	0.21***	-0.31	0.95	0.08***
Isolation	0.34	-0.94	0.11***	-0.17	-0.99	0.15***
SST	-0.45	0.89	0.01	0.58	0.81	0.10***
Coral richness	-0.01	1.00	0.06***	0.61	0.79	0.08***

Predictors: Reef area: current reef area; Refugia: distance from the Quaternary Refugia; Chlorophyll-a: mean chlorophyll-a; Distance BC: distance from biodiversity center; SST: mean sea surface temperature; Isolation: isolation from the nearest reef areas and Coral richness. \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; \*  $p < 0.05$ .

Table S4. The environmental predictors considered in this study for the Central Indo-Pacific, the Central Pacific and the Western Indian biogeographic regions and their association with the NMDS ordination scores for taxonomic ( $T\beta_{sim}$ ) and functional turnover ( $F\beta_{sim}$ ) of reef fish assemblages. Association is represented by regression coefficients from “envfit” analysis.

Predictors	Central Indo-Pacific – $T\beta_{sim}$			Central Indo-Pacific – $F\beta_{sim}$		
	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$
Reef area	-0.73	0.68	0.04	0.98	-0.18	0.02
Refugia	-0.82	-0.57	0.47***	-0.48	-0.88	0.08*
Chlorophyll-a	0.51	-0.86	0.05	-0.91	0.41	0.02
Distance BC	-0.61	0.79	0.46***	0.86	0.52	0.23***
Isolation	-0.85	-0.53	0.18**	-0.99	-0.17	0.13**
Coral richness	1.00	0.10	0.08*	0.88	0.47	0.01
Predictors	Central Pacific – $T\beta_{sim}$			Central Pacific – $F\beta_{sim}$		
	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$
Reef area	0.42	0.91	0.03	-0.67	0.74	0.06
Refugia	0.63	-0.78	0.30**	-0.87	-0.49	0.03
Chlorophyll-a	-0.03	-1.00	0.10*	-0.43	-0.90	0.24***
Distance BC	-0.43	0.90	0.35***	0.31	0.95	0.13**
Mean SST	-0.28	0.96	0.15**	0.96	0.28	0.14**
Coral richness	-0.74	-0.67	0.05	0.16	-0.99	0.00
Predictors	Western Indian – $T\beta_{sim}$			Western Indian – $F\beta_{sim}$		
	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$	NMDS1	NMDS2	$R^2$
Reef area	0.53	0.85	0.22**	0.56	-0.83	0.18**
Refugia	-0.86	-0.51	0.44***	0.17	-0.99	0.02
Chlorophyll-a	0.45	-0.90	0.30***	-0.45	0.89	0.12*
Distance BC	-0.97	0.26	0.03	0.97	-0.26	0.25***
Isolation	-0.96	0.27	0.26***	-0.07	-1.00	0.18**
Coral richness	0.16	0.99	0.75***	0.60	-0.80	0.27**

Predictors: Reef area: current reef area; Refugia: distance from the Quaternary Refugia; Chlorophyll-a: mean chlorophyll-a; Distance BC: distance from biodiversity center; SST: mean sea surface temperature; Isolation: isolation from the nearest reef areas and Coral richness. \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; \*  $p < 0.05$ .



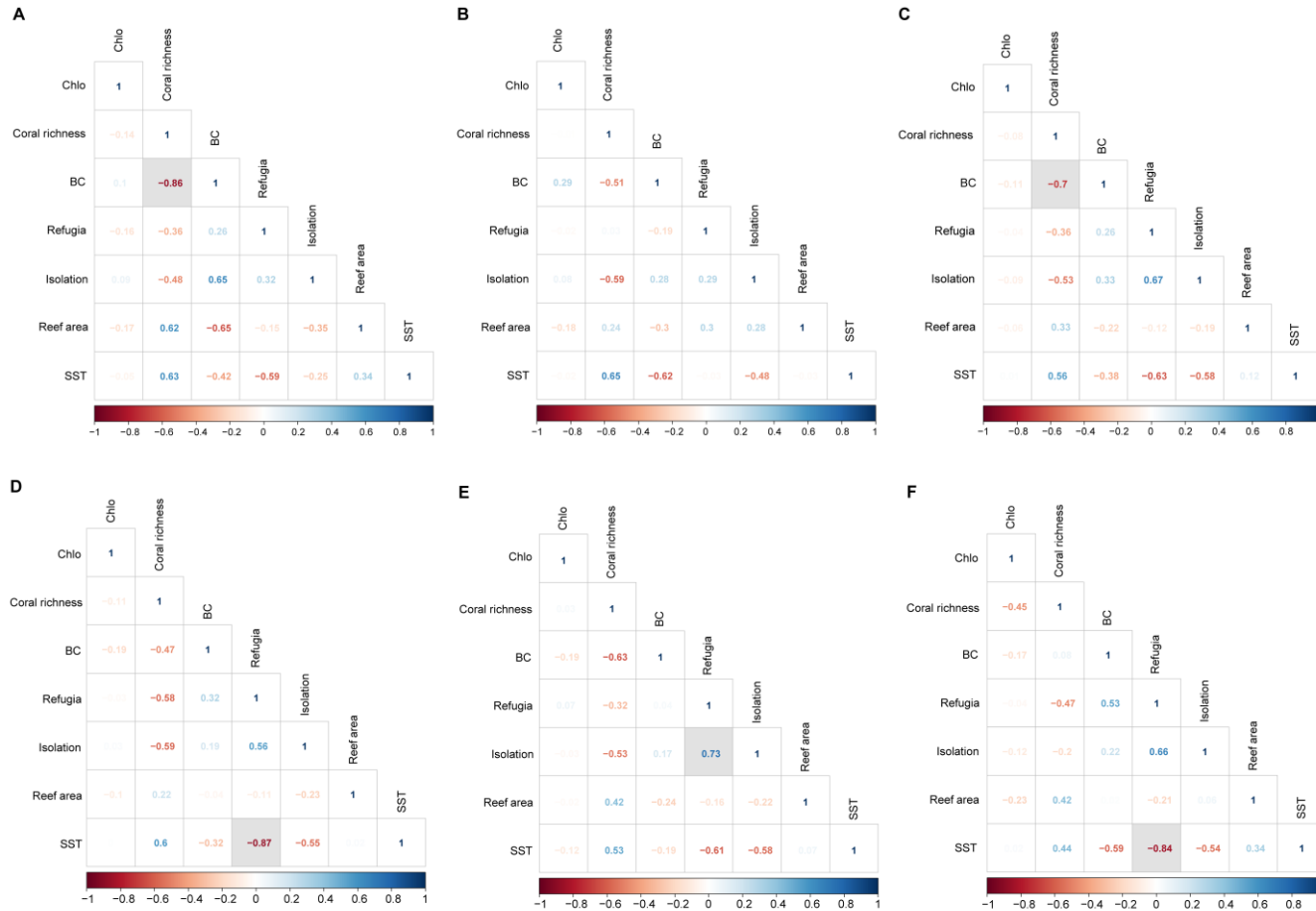


Figure S1. Correlation matrices for the set of environmental and geographic predictors for marine realms (A) the Atlantic, (B) the Tropical Eastern Pacific, (C) the Indo-Pacific and biogeographic regions of the Indo-Pacific realm (D) the Central Indo-Pacific, (E) the Central Pacific and (F) the Western Indian. Filled grey square indicates environmental predictors with correlation  $\geq 0.7$ . When two predictors were correlated, one was excluded from the analysis. Predictors: Chlo: mean chlorophylla-a; Coral richness; BC: distance from biodiversity center; Refugia: distance from Quaternary refugia; Isolation: isolation from the nearest reef areas; Reef area: current reef area; and SST: mean sea surface temperature.

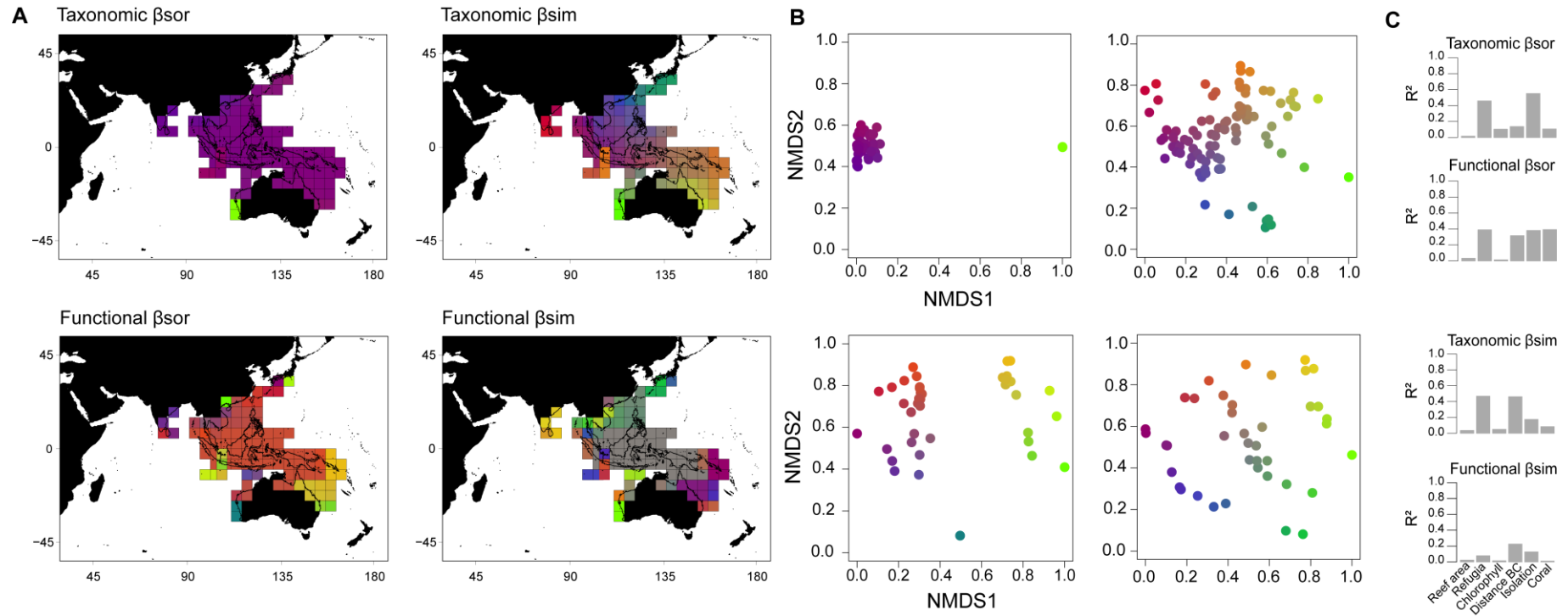


Figure S2. The Central Indo-Pacific reef fish beta-diversity patterns inferred from non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination based on (A) the total taxonomic beta diversity (Taxonomic  $\beta_{sor}$ ) and total functional beta diversity (Functional  $\beta_{sor}$ ) as well as the taxonomic turnover component (Taxonomic  $\beta_{sim}$ ) and functional turnover component (Functional  $\beta_{sim}$ ). In (B) Each dot in the NMDS scatter plots represents a grid cell and colors are identical to those in the map. (C) The relative importance ( $R^2$ ) of environmental predictors (Current reef area; Distance from Quaternary Refugia; mean Chlorophyll-a; Distance from the biodiversity center; Isolation from the nearest reef areas and Coral richness) to taxonomic and functional beta diversity from the “envfit” analysis. Black bars denote environmental variables with relative importance  $R^2 \geq 0.6$ .

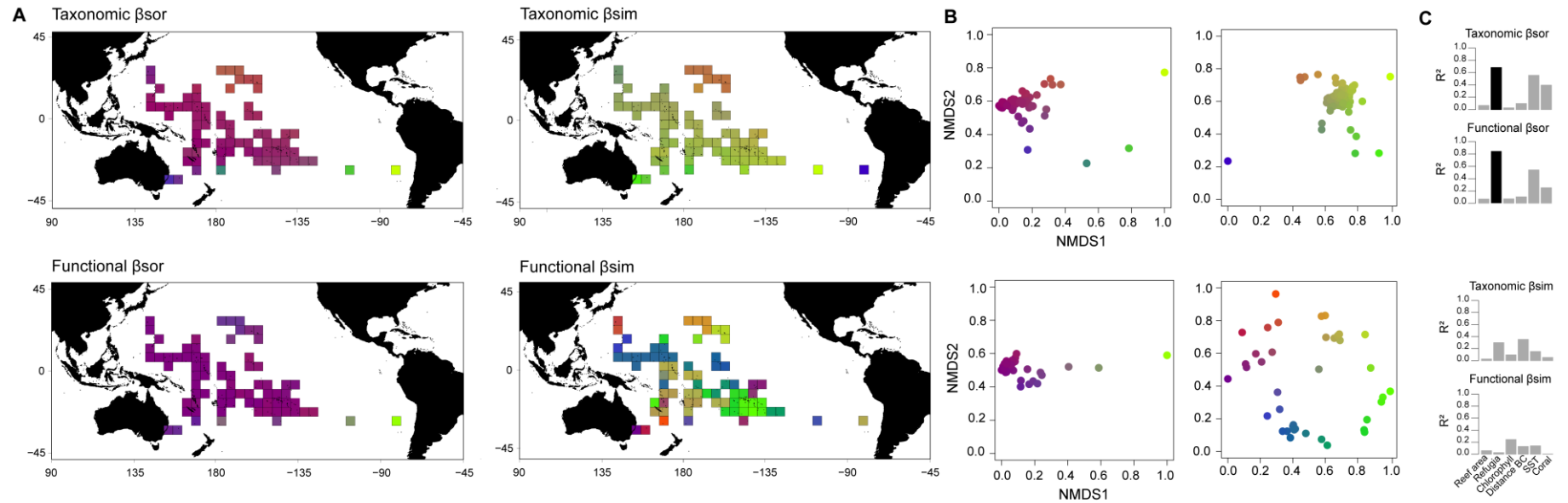


Figure S3. The Central Pacific reef fish beta-diversity patterns inferred from non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination based on (A) the total taxonomic beta diversity (Taxonomic  $\beta_{sor}$ ) and total functional beta diversity (Functional  $\beta_{sor}$ ) as well as the taxonomic turnover component (Taxonomic  $\beta_{sim}$ ) and functional turnover component (Functional  $\beta_{sim}$ ). In (B) Each dot in the NMDS scatters plots represents a grid cell and colors are identical to those in the map. (C) The relative importance ( $R^2$ ) of environmental predictors (Current reef area; Distance from Quaternary Refugia; mean Chlorophyll-a; Distance from the biodiversity center; Mean sea surface temperature and Coral richness) to taxonomic and functional beta diversity from the “envfit” analysis. Black bars denote environmental variables with relative importance  $R^2 \geq 0.6$ .

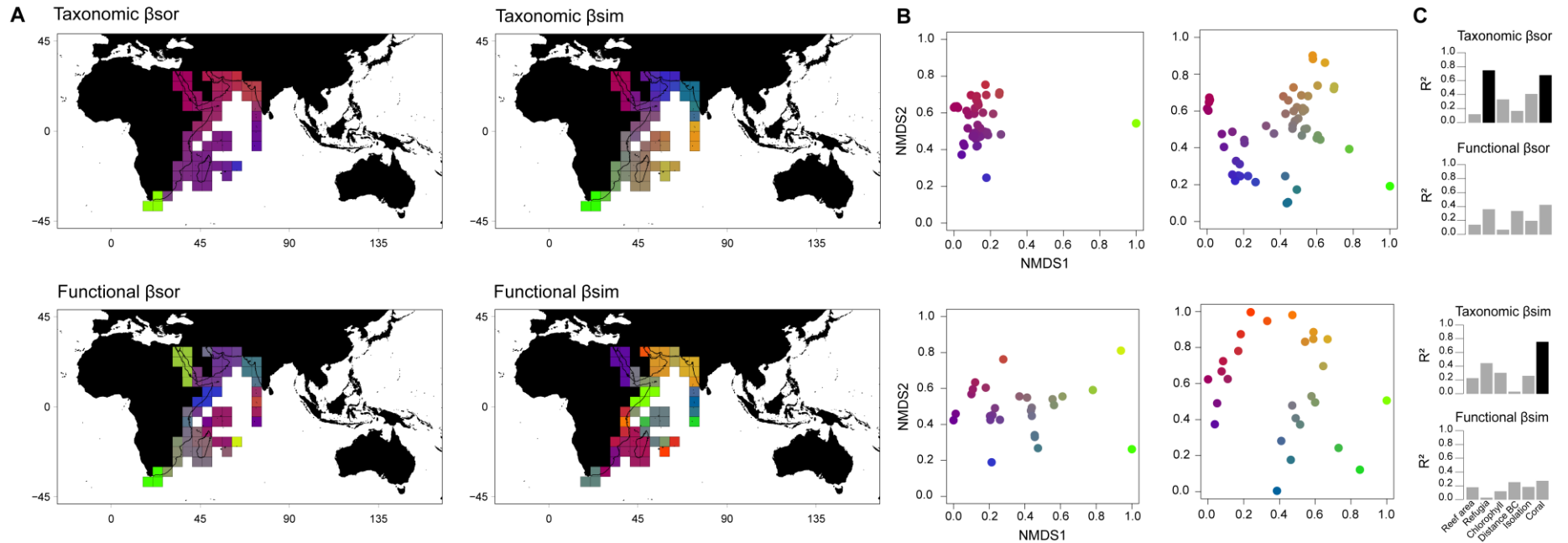


Figure S4. Figure S2. The Western Indian reef fish beta-diversity patterns inferred from non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination based on (A) the total taxonomic beta diversity (Taxonomic  $\beta_{sor}$ ) and total functional beta diversity (Functional  $\beta_{sor}$ ) as well as the taxonomic turnover component (Taxonomic  $\beta_{sim}$ ) and functional turnover component (Functional  $\beta_{sim}$ ). In (B) Each dot in the NMDS scatters plots represents a grid cell and colors are identical to those in the map. (C) The relative importance ( $R^2$ ) of environmental predictors (Current reef area; Distance from Quaternary Refugia; mean Chlorophyll-a; Distance from the biodiversity center; Isolation from the nearest reef areas and Coral richness) to taxonomic and functional beta diversity from the “envfit” analysis. Black bars denote environmental variables with  $R^2 \geq 0.6$ .

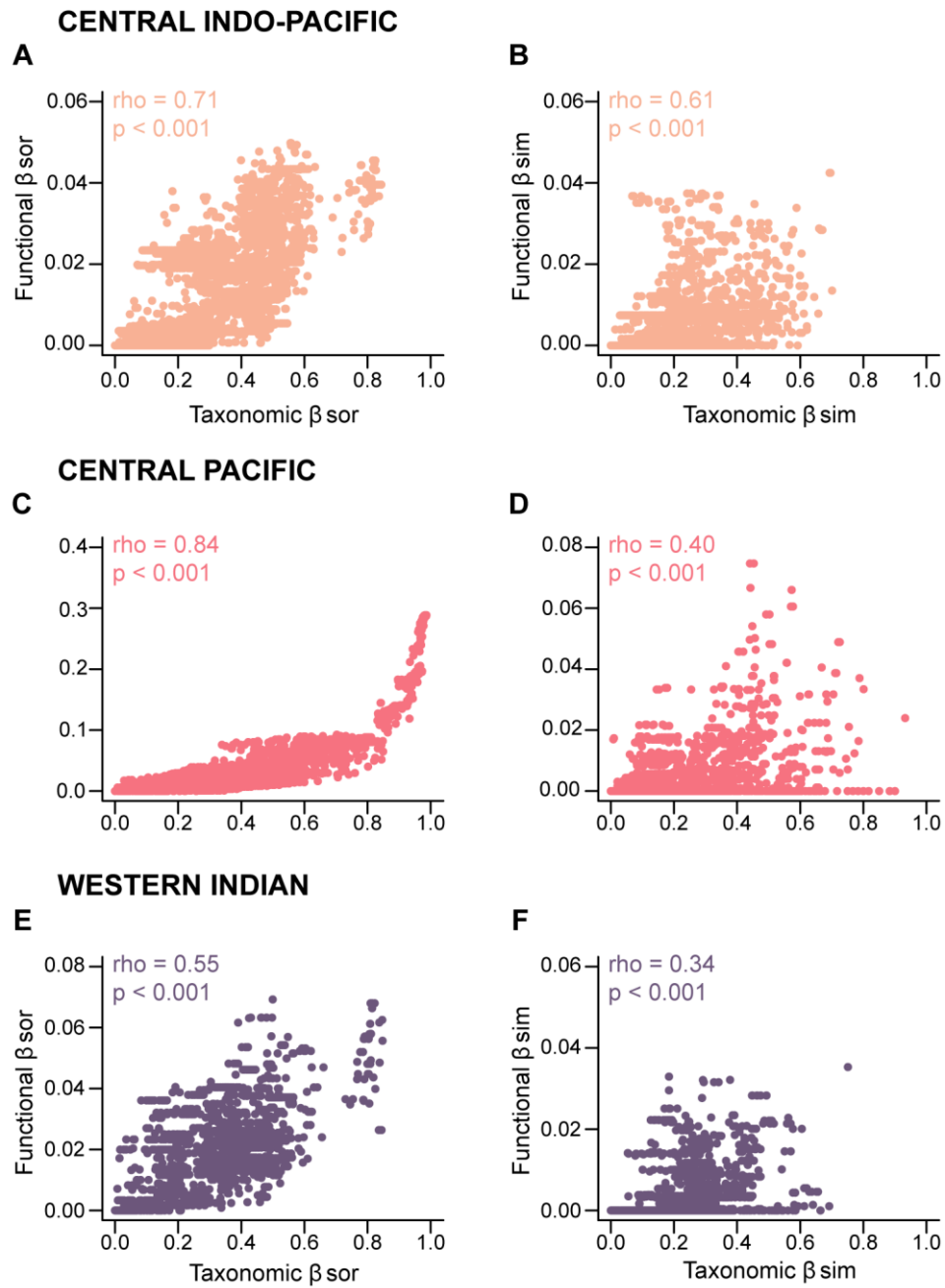


Figure S5. Spearman's correlation coefficients between taxonomic and functional beta diversity, including total beta diversity (left hand side) and the turnover component (right hand side) of reef fish assemblages in three Indo-Pacific biogeographic regions: the Central Indo-Pacific (A, B), the Central Pacific (C, D) and the Western Indian (E, F).